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ABSTRACT

This survey of recent research on teacher behaviors probes seven areas of elementary language arts teaching: teaching linguistics to elementary and preschool children; teaching listening skills to children in the elementary school; teaching literature to children; children's oral language/speaking; reading instruction; spelling instruction; and the teaching of writing. Answers were sought to these questions: (1) What teaching behaviors are associated with pupil "success" as defined in the respective studies? and (2) How can one identify and describe these activities in the classroom milieu? It was concluded that gaps exist in the crucial area of "precise activities at points of interaction between teacher and pupil." In addition to sections reporting on each of the seven areas probed, the book includes "Plan for a Five-Phase Study of Teaching Effectiveness," "Criteria of Excellence in Teaching the Language Arts," "Evaluative Instruments and Pertinent Research," and "A Forward Look." (HOD)

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Teacher Effectiveness in Elementary Language Arts: A Progress Report

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Credit is due to approximately fifty persons who contributed their time and thoughtful effort to the investigation of which this is a progress report. Their contributions are recorded in the appendix. The sequential steps of the study and the responsibilities for each step suggest the complexity and the volume of work entailed. The help of many NCRE members and offers of further assistance are gratefully acknowledged.

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Foreword

The National Institute of Education (NIE), recognizing the gap between educational research and classroom teaching, has charged ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) to go beyond its initial function of gathering, evaluating, indexing, and disseminating information to a significant new service: information synthesis and transfer.

The ERIC system has already made available—through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service—much informative data, including all federally funded research reports since 1956. However, if the findings of specific educational research are to be intelligible to teachers and applicable to teaching, considerable bodies of data must be re-evaluated, focused, translated, and molded into an essentially different context. Rather than resting at the point of making research reports readily accessible, NIE has now directed the separate ERIC Clearinghouses to commission from recognized authorities information analysis papers in specific areas.

Each of these documents focuses on a concrete educational need. The paper attempts a comprehensive treatment and qualitative assessment of the published and unpublished material trends, teaching materials, the judgments of recognized experts in the field, reports and findings from various national committees and commissions. In his analysis he tries to answer the question "Where are we?"; sometimes finds order in apparently disparate approaches; often points in new directions. The knowledge contained in an information analysis paper is a necessary foundation for reviewing existing curricula, planning new beginnings, and aiding the teacher in *now* situations.

This booklet reports the first phase of an attempt to discover what makes a teacher a good teacher, and what teaching is good teaching.

Bernard O'Donnell
Director, ERIC/RCS

Introduction

Questions about teacher excellence, as compared with mediocrity and with negative effectiveness, continue to perplex both the teaching profession and a concerned citizenry. The following kinds of questions, as well as many of a more specific sort, are frequently raised: How is a successful teacher different from an unsuccessful one? Why do teachers in the same school, educated in presumably the same kind of teacher education programs and using the same methods, from the same socioeconomic levels and from similar home-and-family backgrounds, secure vastly different learning from children of like abilities? Moreover, what is success in teaching? Specifically, what is success in teaching the language arts? Is it a matter of getting children to want to learn to use language "correctly" according to society's values? Is it a matter of helping children to reach their own goals in communication as well as some of the goals valued by society? Is successful teaching a process of showing children how to pass tests of many kinds—tests made by experts and tests made by the learners themselves, sometimes independently and sometimes with adult cooperation? Is "good" teaching of the language arts the development of describable and desirable language skills? Does successful teaching aim at the mastery of certain information about language? Does it also embrace positive attitudes toward one's own and others' languages? Is successful teaching concerned with all these

goals and processes and many others in reading, writing, talking, and listening? These questions arise continually and with increasing intensity in the decade of the seventies.

One reason for today's greater urgency regarding such concerns is the increasing pressure of economics. Rising costs of the education of teachers and of the children and adolescents whom they teach contribute to current financial crises. Likewise, frustration felt by both pupils and teachers adds to concern for humanitarian imperatives. A sense of defeat, of wasted energies in some teachers and learners, as contrasted with a sense of victory and worthy accomplishments in others, dramatizes the need for continued and wider examination of teaching effectiveness.

Language stands at the center of the communication process inherent in teaching and learning. Because of the power of language in education and because of the time spent in teaching the arts of language, even a partial solution to the problem of "successful" versus "unsuccessful" teaching behaviors could contribute to knowledge essential to both professionals and laymen. In addition to these considerations of humanitarian and economic goals, the Beginning Reading Studies, initiated by the National Conference on Research in English (NCRE), helped to bring the profession to a direct confrontation with the problem.

The beginning of this decade found NCRE re-examining and amplifying the Beginning Reading Studies. It is well known that the major significance of those studies was twofold: (1) they showed no overwhelming and pervasive superiority of any one method over other methods, and (2) they did show greater differences in pupil achievement from teacher to teacher within method than from method to method. This minimal statement of findings from so extensive and intensive an inquiry has become a near-classic residuum. Other results relative to favorable methods for certain subgroups also accrued. But no finding denied the essential truth of differences in teaching effectiveness. Hence, it is almost inevitable that the evidence from the study of beginning methods, funded by the United States Office of Education, should precipitate a new search.

Two questions emerge as the goal of new investigations: (1) What are the significant differences from teacher to teacher within method? (What characteristics distinguish the behaviors of the successful or effective teacher from those of the unsuccessful or ineffective teacher?) and (2) How can researchers approach the enormous problem of *how* to study specific teaching behaviors in the language arts curriculum, and how can they assess the relationship of these behaviors to pupils' learning?

Early Steps of the Study

As the Cooperative Research Committee of NCRE explored its way into a definition of teaching behaviors, its initial effort involved many of its members. Out of open discussion, sharing of ideas, and much reading, it became clear that a careful examination of research already done in this field must be made. Thus the first phase of what would surely be a long-term project became a search for recent studies that may already have contributed to the two core questions: (1) What teaching behaviors are associated with pupil "success" as defined in the respective studies? and (2) How can one identify and describe these activities in the classroom milieu?

As the Literature Search Committee, divided into seven subcommittees, explored the research literature of the last five years, a five-phase project began to take shape—one that would necessarily involve many researchers and perhaps a ten-to-fifteen year period. To facilitate the work of the first phase—the literature search—a stringently selective bibliography form was needed (see appendix). This selectivity called for many of the kinds of data needed in research reporting as minimal information for assessing pupil subjects as well as teaching behaviors.

The NCRE bibliography criteria sought studies that (1) identified teaching behavior; (2) differentiated teacher from teacher regarding styles of behavior; and (3) included teacher-learner interaction observable from video tape, observations scales, or stenographic records.

Reports of the Literature Search Committee

Phase I of the Study of Teaching Behaviors

The Literature Search Committee, chaired by Sara W. Lundsteen, began its work in 1971, using the Selective Bibliography Form (see appendix). Requirements of this form are rigorous, particularly as to reporting details of demographic information about pupils and teachers, specific instruments used, and sufficiently complete information about classroom procedures to differentiate one teacher from another.

It would be an oversimplification to say that no research report found by the entire committee, working in seven subcommittees, gave sufficient detail of the kind called for in the Selective Bibliography Form to gain unqualified acceptance. But such oversimplification would be minimal.

Many investigators give accounts of procedures used by teachers in experimental groups as opposed to control groups in reports of classical experimental design, but samplings of precise activities at points of interaction between teacher and pupil or pupils are not available. Since it is at these points of interaction that much—*though not all*—teaching takes place, the omission of such data in studying teaching behaviors is a strategic loss. It is this kind of evidence, whether on paper or on sound or video tape, and its related analysis and interpretation that must be included in plans for future research into teaching behaviors and their effectiveness.

Despite the lack of specifics of teaching behaviors, a number of studies were discovered having peripheral value to each of the language arts components. They constitute a highly useful approach to new research (1) by identifying significant problem areas of teacher-pupil interaction in language arts, (2) by revealing the kinds of detail needed for arriving at some differentiating teaching behaviors, and (3) by illustrating some useful techniques for initiating the identification and assessment of teaching behaviors.

Teaching Linguistics to Elementary and Preschool Children: Review of Research and Comment

William D. Page, University of Chicago

The concern of our literature search is the behaviors of teachers who are in the act of teaching linguistics to elementary and preschool children. In order to proceed with the literature search, it is necessary to agree on a definition of linguistics. Because of the scope and complexity and because of recent changes in thrusts in linguistics, controversy is the rule rather than the exception. We begin with a widely accepted, but deceptively simple statement, knowing full well that painstaking examination will follow: Linguistics is the scientific study of language.

Analysis of this brief definition suggests three questions: "What is language?" "What is science?" and "What is study in linguistics?" We can best answer the first question, "What is language?" by seeking expert authority. Carroll provides a definitive statement that proves satisfactory for our purposes.

A language is a structured system of arbitrary vocal sounds and sequences of sounds which is used, or can be used, in interpersonal communication by an aggregation of human beings, and which rather exhaustively catalogs things, events, and processes in the human environment. (1953, p. 10)

The remaining two questions are treated methodologically. Science is the generic methodology which includes linguistics. To be scientific, an undertaking must be logical, critical, and precise, and it must generate verifiable statements using sharable methods. Study in linguistics is inquiry into language. It includes gathering language data, analyzing it, and describing language by interpreting the data. Linguistics is the name for man's most precise attempts to describe language and how it works.

Patience and persistence characterized the small group of professionals involved in this limited search. Appreciation is due each member for time and effort put forth: Frances Beck, Research Associate, and Barbara Farnandis and Genevieve Lopardo, Research Assistants, University of Chicago; Earl Hanson, Assistant Professor, Northern Illinois University; and Richard Hodges, Associate Professor, University of Chicago.

Description and Value

In surveying studies listed under linguistics and teaching, we find numerous explicit and implicit attempts to support value statements with linguistic method. Value statements about good or bad grammar and the value of standard and nonstandard English are examples. Value statements are claims of what should happen or what should be. Value statements are logically acceptable only when they are backed by a prescriptive discipline designed to produce value statements. Philosophy, law, psychiatry, religion, and education are prescriptive disciplines. Linguistics is not. Studies making value claims supported solely by descriptive methodology, such as linguistics, are not reported here.

Structural, Generative, and Traditional Grammar

Structural linguistics is often called *descriptive* linguistics, as though other facets of linguistic science are not descriptive. Pointing out the confusion will not change usage, but we can clarify certain matters for the purposes of our literature search. If all linguistic methodology is descriptive, then scientific studies labeled *generative* grammar and *traditional* grammar are also descriptive. The term "structural" is a useful name for *descriptive* linguistics (Wardhaugh, 1969, p. 31). We treated all linguistics as man's scientific attempts to describe language and how it works. In selecting studies, we searched for studies of how teachers behave while teaching transformational or generative linguistics, as well as structural linguistics, to preschool and elementary children.

Selection Constraints

Only empirical studies of teacher behavior between November 1966 and November 1971 are reported. Guides, general directions, manuals, and linguistics in foreign language instruction are excluded. Studies primarily concerned with listening, children's literature, thought processes associated with language arts teaching, reading, oral language, speaking, spelling, and writing are excluded from this section because they are treated in other sections of the bibliography.

Related Studies

No studies surveyed totally met the constraints for selection. The studies reported here marginally relate to the criteria of selection, but they are representative of what is occurring in relation to this limited area of research.

Several studies describe controlled teacher behavior and show the effects using various linguistically based classification schemes. Miller

and Ney (1967), Hoetker (1968), Fox (1970), Kessel (1970), and Hunter and Bruce (1971) generally fall into this category.

Miller and Ney (1967) found teaching the combining of sentence forms had significant effects on the written response of fourth graders. The teaching behavior that was described involved the teacher reading cue sentences to stimulate students' responses.

Hoetker (1968) noted in his study on questioning that the proportion of correct answers was inversely related to the rate of questioning and was unaffected by the ability level of the subjects in his study.

Fox (1970) studied the effects of controlled teacher language behavior on the language of eighty children from grades kindergarten through three. Significant growth occurred in the number of T-units, number of words in T-units, and the mean word length of T-units between kindergarten and first grade level.

Kessel (1970) categorized four types of sentences and studied their uses with a small sample in a clinical situation. Linguistic behaviors of both the clinician and the subjects were reported.

Hunter and Bruce (1971) found that adult verbal modeling produced differences in the verbal performance of Head Start children. The study drew heavily on the work of Cazden (1965) and Muller (1966).

Two studies compared behavior of groups of teachers carrying out differing curriculum tasks. Kean (1967) analyzed the language of second and fifth grade teachers with respect to phonological and sentence unit segmentation, structure patterns, pattern components, dependent and independent clauses, and vocabulary diversification. No significant difference between the language of second and fifth grade teachers was established. Seifert (1966) compared teacher-pupil language behavior in two different programs at one level. He found the number of statements made by teachers and pupils was significantly greater in a Bereiter language program than in a Wehrt cognitive program. Other variables studied were promising, though hypotheses were not supported.

A study by Kelley (1970) involved changes in teacher and pupil behavior due to linguistic manipulation. Kindergartners' use of two of four linguistically defined language forms was increased. Teachers' behaviors for teaching the language forms were significantly increased in most of the fourteen categories studied using video tapes, a handbook, and model lessons.

Sources for the Interested Researcher

Though none of the studies reported are specifically within the constraints of the criteria of selection, they may prove helpful to those

seeking to fill the identified void. Specific resources warrant mention for the interested researcher. *Research in the Teaching of English* (a National Council of Teachers of English journal, edited by Braddock and Blount, 1966-1971) is productive. Rosenshine's review, "Evaluation of Classroom Instruction" (1970), should prove very valuable. *Mirrors for Behavior* (Simon and Boyer, 1967) is indispensable for teacher behavior studies, but curriculum content areas are usually not specified. "Linguistics Instruction in Elementary School Classrooms—An NCTE/ERIC Report" (Deaby, 1969) is a good source. *Dissertation Abstracts* is excellent for late work, though it lacks curriculum area information in relation to teacher behaviors. *Linguistic Bibliography for the Teacher of English* is helpful (Minnesota Council of Teachers of English, 1968). Other sources include the ERIC system, *Annotated Bibliography on the Professional Education of Teachers* (Lindsey, Heidelbach, and McClure, 1969), and *The Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (Ebel, 1969).

Many of the studies surveyed center on the improvement of oral language or the improvement of the teaching of oral language. Investigations consider both bilingual and so-called language-deprived children. Many studies are based on language deficiency models, while few emphasize language difference models. Two International Reading Association (IRA) annotated bibliographies deal specifically with linguistics in relation to reading, but teacher behavior is not central (Zuck and Goodman, 1971, and Goodman and Goodman, 1971).

Studies in Language and Language Behavior (Lane, 1967) includes useful reviews of studies in the general area of language behavior, but these studies do not include both teacher behavior and linguistic instruction.

Speculation on the Void

Why is there a lack of studies of the behaviors of teachers while teaching linguistics to preschool and elementary children? The fact is that linguistics, as it is scientifically defined, is an unusual curriculum component in preschool or elementary school settings. This is true partly because most preschool and elementary teachers are not trained in linguistics. Teacher preparation does not generally require linguistic training.

Another part of the explanation involves the way studies are described and reported. Though Simon and Boyer's survey includes many studies of teaching behavior, what is being taught is usually not cited in the interaction studies (Simon and Boyer, 1967). Conversely, curriculum studies that cite what is being taught are usually

not concerned with teaching behavior or teacher-pupil interaction (Rosenshine, 1970, p. 280).

Teacher behaviors while teaching linguistics appears to be relatively unbroken ground to researchers. The studies we reported are marginal with respect to the stated bibliographical constraints, but they suggest a framework of areas begging research inroads. Findings reflect Braddock's comment that "... we need research on basic process at this time almost more than we do research in teaching methods and curriculum" (1967, p. v).

Comment

The presuppositions to this search beg examination. Currently, there are directives afoot suggesting that linguistics should be taught to preschool and elementary children. Educators must question the support for such directives. We must put these directives into perspective before we can proceed with a productive examination of how teachers behave while teaching linguistics.

Psycholinguistics joins linguistics, the formal descriptions of language, and psychology, the formal descriptions of the acquisition of systems and how the systems work (Slobin, 1971). Both linguistics and psychology are totally descriptive and cannot generate scientific statements or theories that tell what teachers should do in teaching English, reading, or anything else. A linguistic or psycholinguistic method of teaching is a misnomer (Smith and Goodman, 1971). What educators must draw from linguistics and psychology are insights into language and the systems involved in learning (Goodman, 1968).

These insights offer aid in making the educational decision to teach or not to teach linguistics at various chronologically designated points in the curriculum. The responsibility for the decision structure falls squarely in the educational domain, where teaching must be related to the consequences it has for people. Neither linguistics nor psychology is designed to handle that responsibility.

At present, the consequences of teaching linguistics to preschool and elementary children are not clear. We know that people—adults and children—do not need to know how to formally describe language or its acquisition in order to use language effectively. It is linguists who must know the techniques of describing language, and it is teachers who must use the products of linguistic inquiry to better understand the processes of structuring learning situations, in language-bound curriculum areas. Research must be aimed at finding out how linguistic insights can be used to help teachers in planning, implementing, and evaluating educational programs. The present search is an incremental step in that direction.

Though no claim to exhaustivity is made, the search led down many paths, all of them interesting. Purposefully excluded were courses of study, program descriptions, and linguistics in foreign language instruction. Each represents an area of pertinent, worthy studies that fall outside of the selection constraints. It is hoped that the findings of this search will prove useful and that this brief report will serve to spur further investigation.

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Teaching Listening Skills to Children in the Elementary School, 1966-1971: Research Review and Suggested Directions

Sara W. Lundsteen, University of California, Irvine

The purpose of this report for the National Conference on Research in English (NCRE) is to announce the results concerning the search of literature for evidence of teaching behavior and its interaction with pupil behavior. Studies were to be selected according to the NCRE specified criteria.* The general state of the art of listening in connection with the classroom has been reported in detail elsewhere (Lundsteen, 1971). This earlier work dealt with research throwing light on the definition of listening and on listening skills found in current programs and tests. Other than two dissertations (Wilcox, 1972, and Schmidt, in progress), the investigator found no studies that approached fulfillment of the criteria of the Cooperative Research Committee. It might be fruitful, however, for the future direction of the NCRE committee, to present a framework of "hunches" for productive teacher and pupil behaviors related to listening instruction and to diagram these dimensions as a guide to future research of this committee as it develops rating devices for its Phase II.

Ideally speaking, as the teacher acquires various reportedly desirable behaviors, he seeks to pass them on to his pupils, who begin to employ them also. The Wilcox study (1972), with its trained and untrained discussion leaders, suggests that pupils as well as teachers need to be guided by someone toward desirable communication behaviors. After assuming this "who" consisting of classroom teachers and their pupils, these desirable behaviors can be categorized roughly into those dealing with "where," "what," "why," and "how."

Where

One set of teacher behaviors and attitudes considered basically important to listening deals with the "environment" or with "climate"

* It will be obvious that this review went further afield than the specific literature on research in listening instruction in order to generate suggestions for productive teaching behavior.

control in the classroom. The following are examples of observable behaviors dealing with attempts to optimize listening channels. Behaviors are numbered consecutively throughout the report.

1. *Adjusts seating to the best acoustical advantage, especially in the cases of pupils handicapped in hearing.*
2. *Checks temperature, ventilation, appropriate amount of "quiet" (Brown, 1970), position of the speaker in relation to the listeners, and so on.*

The point is that not only can teachers attend to these responsibilities themselves, but they can guide children to assume this behavior and can reinforce its appearance with praise and knowledge of success communicated to pupils. Some people tend to tolerate this "noise" of poor environmental conditions hampering their channels for listening, assuming that it is someone else's responsibility to correct the problem—not theirs.

What

Another set of teacher behaviors has to do with the task analysis and content of listening material. The teacher may subdivide and break down a hierarchy of pinpointed goals, objectives, and skills until learner success can occur. Goal setting includes levels of listening performance. Also the teacher knows "what" goes into children's information processing. A process framework of steps and skills of a proficient listener has been described in detail in an earlier publication (Lundsteen, 1971, chapters 2 and 3) with the help of a flow-chart and a matrix of skills. These are reproduced here without elaboration, as they are somewhat self-explanatory.

Teachers can demonstrate behavior showing that they recognize these skills and the process when they operate during a class discussion or in other instructional situations. They give students feedback about the skills, pointing them out and thus reinforcing them. Children gradually learn those skills that are lifted to consciousness and associated with success.

Analyses of skills have been made by Rosner (1972) for auditory perception and discrimination in kindergarten and elementary school children and by Johnson and Friedman (1970) for other basic listening operations in children from ten to fourteen years of age—for example, children defined listening situations by selecting desired outcomes.

3. *Diagnoses, selects, and appraises an appropriate sequence of skills for individual learners.*

Figure 1. Flow Chart of Listening: Steps a Proficient Listener May Take

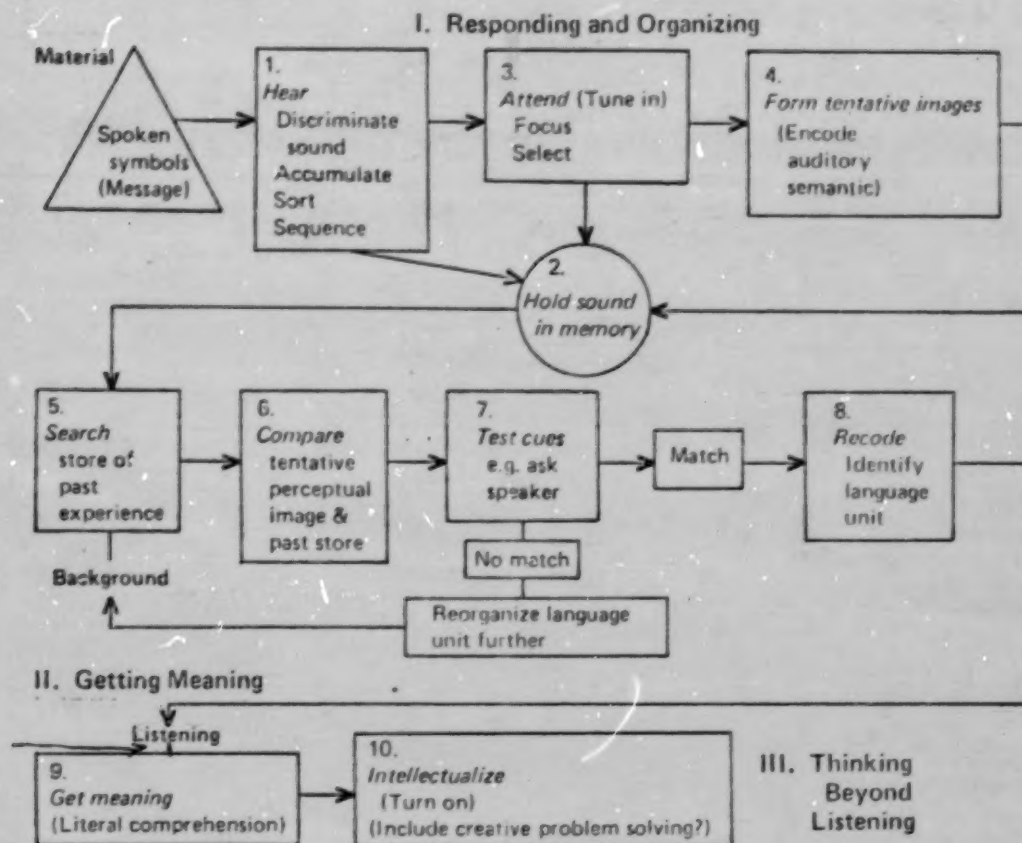


Figure 2. A Way of Classifying Listening Comprehension Skills

UNITS OF LANGUAGE ORGANIZATION*				
PHONOLOGY	(Word)	LEXICON	(Sentence)	GRAMMAR
(sound)	Morpheme word, Idiom	Semantic and grammatical com- ponents of lexicon	Morphology & syntax	Semantic components

COMPREHENSION SKILLS**	UNITS OF LANGUAGE ORGANIZATION			
	Word	Sentence	Paragraph	Total composition
Critical Listening Evaluation				
General Listening Synthesis				
Analysis				
Application				
Comprehension				
Knowledge of specifics				

*Adapted from J.B. Carroll,
Development of Native Language
Skills Beyond the Early Years
(Princeton, N.J.: Educational Test-
ing Service, June 1968).

**This categorization is from the
Taxonomy of Educational Objectives,
Handbook I: Cognitive Domain,

edited by B.S. Bloom (New York:
McKay, 1956).

Another dimension of the "what" deals specifically with teaching behavior in regard to listening material and its content. Again, ideally, the teacher passes on the function of being a provider of material and an evaluator to pupils for their own autonomous operation.

4. *Selects or develops listening material for certain skills and sub-skills at an appropriate level of difficulty and with variety.*
5. *Avoids ritual and the presenting of too much listening material at one time. That is, the teacher uses listening time wisely and selectively.*
6. *Avoids needless repetition of instructions, which encourages careless listening.*
7. *Helps children note what other children will listen to and appreciate.*

Why

The "why" or rationale behind teacher behavior that is committed and enthusiastic is related to the goals of listening mentioned under the "what." In the "why" category the teacher is prepared to explain the purpose of a listening experience, describe its importance and function, and explain why it is to the learner's advantage to listen—rather than simply demanding unquestioning obedience.

8. *Knows why listening instruction is important and guides children to this realization, for example, listening as a factor in social and in economic competency, as sometimes the major educational route open, especially for the poor reader.*

How

Readiness. Consisting of several strategies, the "how" in at least one instance is closely related to the "why." This strategy is to let learners see reasons why they should go to the trouble to learn or practice a certain skill. Then learner motivation becomes higher; passive and active resistance diminishes. One aspect of motivation is the use of advanced organizers to give a sense of direction (Ausubel, 1960, 1969) in the form of purposes or preparation for the listening material to come.

9. *Pinpoints a focus for listening.*

This use of advanced organizers relates to the readiness factor in listening instruction. Care here is taken in preparation for new or difficult vocabulary to be used in listening material. In other words, the teacher checks the background or attained boundaries of learner

performance, which includes vocabulary and other language and non-language concepts.

10. *Observes carefully throughout instruction for verbal and non-verbal hints of boundaries of learner performance and competence.*
11. *Encourages children to demand meaning for the vocabulary they hear.*
12. *Uses challenging vocabulary and syntax that causes children to reach ahead of their boundaries (Chomsky, 1972), or uses some other activator of learning.*

Another set of behaviors related to the "how" of instruction refers to the concept of "pacing" and its focusing, extending, and lifting strategies found in the Taba (1966) and in the Schmidt (in progress) studies.

13. *Calls on more than one child to respond to an open-ended question and samples layers of a group, extending facts and conditions on a more concrete level of discourse before seeking a lift in thought to a more advanced level. ("What are they before we try to group and label them?" "Tell us what you could call these, before we try to apply them to this situation or relate them to another group.")*

Another part of this "how" of pacing is simply making productive use of pauses while giving time for listening and thinking processes to operate. In other words the provocative teacher's question time is less than the pupil's answer time.

14. *Uses words as concisely as possible in order to provoke and then waits for many responses while respecting silences.*

The teacher reveals these pacing and other strategies to children by helping them attain concepts. Concepts are attained with inductive guidance from examples and non-examples (Markle and Tieman, 1970, 1972).

15. *For a given listening skill (generalization, strategy, or attitude) makes an analysis of a concept and selects a rational set of examples and of non-examples with crucial and irrelevant attributes for teaching and testing.*

Reinforcement. The next set of strategies refers to reinforcement. For instruction in listening comprehension the suggestion is that learning be strengthened by teacher behaviors that promote pupil autonomy, communicative feedback, and the resulting reward from a

sense of direction from confirmation, or satisfaction of curiosity. Such strategies are suggested instead of "M & M's," tokens, points, and other extrinsic rewards.

16. *Helps children achieve a sense of direction during listening instruction as children obtain knowledge of their apparent boundaries, have a chance to operate, review their performance boundary again, and go on to a more challenging operation.*
17. *Provides feedback on results of listening effort. ("Yes, that is what was communicated.") Uses outside evaluation to encourage self-evaluation. ("How did you listen?" "Now how?")*
18. *Seeks feedback and encourages the seeking of feedback during interpersonal communication. ("What does that mean to you?" "Do you mean this?")*

In other words, the teacher simply makes sure that pupils receive knowledge of results of their efforts to apply listening skills (Goolsby and Lasco, 1970).

Transfer. Besides attention to readiness, with its diagnosed boundaries, of the learner and pacing strategies of focusing, extending, and lifting, and attention to reinforcement with appropriate practice, the teacher gives attention to transfer of listening skills and attitudes. The term "transfer" implies the use of retrieved information from and about listening in a new context. Transfer implies the change in ability to perform as a consequence of having done another related listening act. The teacher fosters this transfer by (1) facilitating a set for it (attitude); (2) making sure that the original, reinforced learning was meaningful; (3) helping the child discriminate similar aspects in the two listening contexts; (4) providing new instances for generalized transfer; and (5) using feedback angled toward a transfer bias (Lundsteen, 1968).

19. *Lets children know he seeks transfer of meaningful skills or attitudes by helping them see similar elements from listening situation to listening situation and provides new ones with feedback if not otherwise available. ("When would be another time to seek feedback from your listener in order to make sure he has understood you?" "What is another instance when you as a listener would report to your speaker to make sure you got it right?")*

Affective Considerations

Finally, the effective teacher probably models an affective attitude, value, feeling tone, or style called "empathy." This set of behaviors is probably part of the cluster for readiness employing the

tone of openness, warmth, liveliness, and sheer verbal fluency which is frequently prerequisite for genuine interpersonal communication. The teacher may simply lean forward and say warmly, "Tell me." Thus he is not "too much a teacher" with grim diagnostic, prescriptive determination. The use of empathy is related to the studies of role-taking in elementary school children conducted by Flavel and others (1968): In these investigations the assumption was that the ability to consider in advance the questions and informational demands of the listener (and the listener's ability to assume the role of his speaker) plays an important part in whether or not any information is exchanged between the two. This construct is sometimes referred to as the empathy-effective communication hypothesis (Hogan and Henly, 1970). More importantly, when children are listened to simply and warmly, it "creates" them, makes them unfold and expand. This sort of affective behavior needs to continue throughout the instructional components of readiness, reinforcement, and transfer.

20. *Listens to children without his mind pressing against theirs, without arguing or changing the subject.*
21. *Distinguishes role attributes of the pupil; puts himself emotionally (as well as cognitively) in the place of the pupil speaker and listener. Shares responsibility for communication.*

In another instance, the effective teacher considers the affective, emotional interference and personal problems of the learners as part of determining their learning boundaries. He exhibits affective consideration. For example, he does not "chew out" a pupil and then expect him to listen at his highest level of capability.

A diagram of the strategies of the "how" of teacher behaviors which have been briefly described here follows and is elaborated in another publication (Lundsteen, 1968).

In conclusion, a summary diagram is offered showing categories in this report of teacher behavior that are suggested as influencing teacher and pupil behavior during listening instruction. These categories may be provocative of future research possibilities.

Figure 3. Some Considerations for the "How" of Listening Instruction

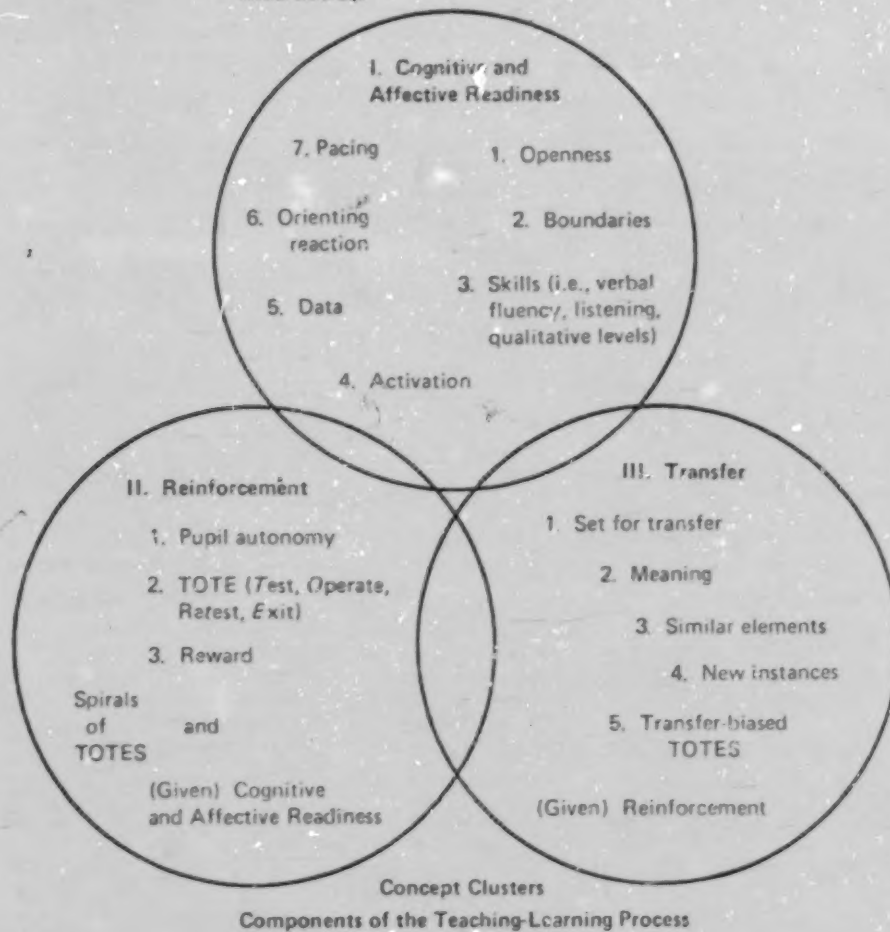
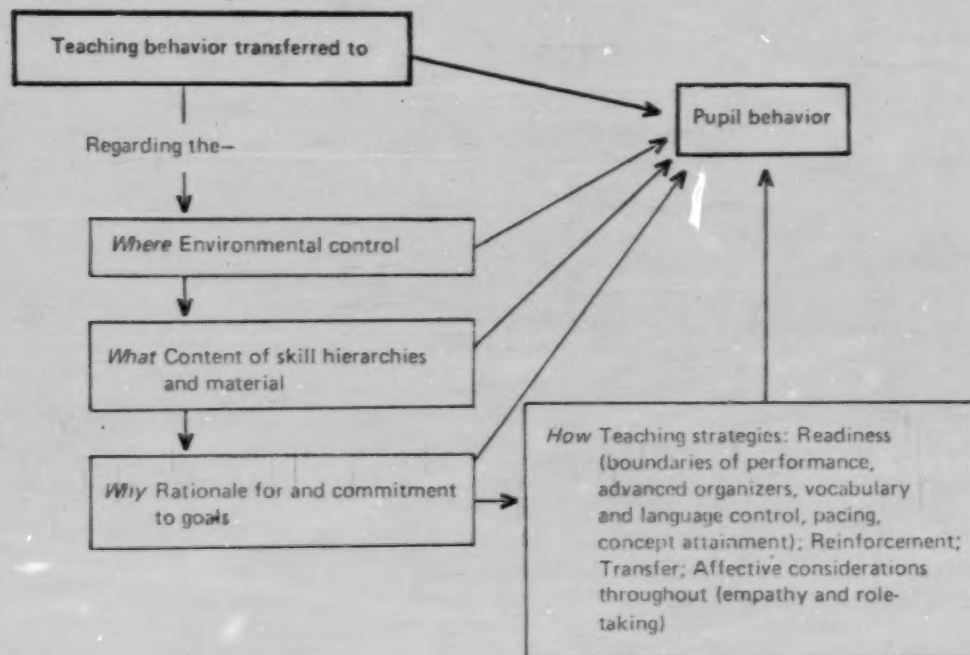


Figure 4. Framework for Productive Teaching Behavior During Listening Instruction



Annotated References*

Ausubel, D. P., and F. G. Robinson. *School Learning: An Introduction to Educational Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969. Also see Ausubel, D. P. "The Use of Advance Organizers in the Learning and Retention of Meaningful Verbal Material." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 51 (1960):267-272.

Briefly, Ausubel assumes that cognitive structure is hierarchically organized in terms of inclusive concepts under which are subsumed less inclusive data. A variety of experiments using this paradigm is summarized. Advanced organizers appear to benefit less verbal individuals, depend on stability of previous concepts, and can appear in the form of facilitating general background knowledge.

Brown, R. A. *The Tyranny of Noise*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1970.

Discusses evidence of noise pollution with some classroom implications.

Chomsky, C. S. "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure." *Harvard Educational Review* 42 (1972):1-33.

Research supports the possible lifting effect of a challenging listening diet. High complexity of material read aloud to children was found closely associated with skill in comprehending complex sentence structure spoken to children five to ten years of age.

Flavel, J. H., and others. *The Development of Role-Taking and Communication Skills in Children*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1968.

Deals with the application of conceptual abilities to social-interpersonal (as opposed to nonsocial, physical) tasks. Shows how the child makes use of information about his receiver (role taking) in devising and transmitting effective messages to others (communicating). Not only investigates a dimension neglected by Piaget, but also seeks to find ways to assist development.

Coolsby, T. M., and R. A. Lasco. "Training Non-Readers in 'Listening Achievement.'" *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 3 (1970):44-47.

Five-year-old children (average population) were given differing kinds of training in listening using four stories, one per day. Treatment 1 pupils were questioned after each story and told whether or not their answers were right or wrong (immediate feedback). Treatment 2 pupils received questions but no knowledge of their results. Treatment 3 pupils were not even questioned. In an earlier study no feedback to deprived Head Start children resulted in significantly lower listening achievement. The implication for the

* The literature search was made in the following: *Current Index to Journals in Education*, *Research in the Teaching of English*, *Language and Language Behavior Abstracts*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *Education Index*, *Dissertation Abstracts*, *Journal of Communication*, *Elementary English*, *Research in Education*, *Harvard Educational Review* and 1970, 1971 Convention Programs of the American Psychological Association, American Educational Research Association, International Reading Association, National Council of Teachers of English, Speech Communication Association, and International Communication Association. Also searched were the *Listening Bibliographies* (first and second editions) by Sam Duker, Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow Press, 1966 and 1968.

children (earlier study) is that ability to answer questions on material improved when knowledge of results or feedback was given. This feedback may have served the function of advanced organizer for the next task in the case of less verbal children. No significant differences were found for the short training sessions for average children.

- Hogan, R., and N. Henley. "A Test of the Empathy-Effective Communication Hypothesis." Report No. 84. USOE Grant No. OEC 2-7-061610-0207. Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools, October 1970.

The assumption is that empathy or role taking is essential if effective information exchange is to occur between persons. The researchers used an objective measure of empathy and an encoding-decoding task with university students to simulate the communication process. A consistent and significant relationship was found between measures of encoding and empathy in support of the empathy-effective hypothesis.

- Johnson, R. L., and H. L. Friedman. "Optimal Strategies for Listening, II: Training of Component Skills." (American Institutes for Research, Silver Spring, Maryland). Paper presented at the 15th annual convention, International Reading Association, 1970. In *Abstracts*, edited by J. S. Nemeth. Newark, Del.: IRA, 1970.

Presents effective listening skills through a formal systems analysis such that listening situations can be defined in terms of operations that produce preferred outcomes. Instructional units, prepared for ages 10-14, were evaluated in a school in Philadelphia. After use of a specially developed battery of listening measures, significant pretest-posttest differences suggested effectiveness of the instruction.

- Lundsteen, S. W. *Listening: Its Impact on Reading and the Other Language Arts*. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English and the ERIC Clearinghouse on the Teaching of English, 1971.

Gives sources for figures 1 and 2 in this report. Shows the relationship of listening to reading and other language arts. Reviews what is known about listening. Presents methods of formulating skills into learning objectives, hierarchies, and other aspects of listening skill to be fostered in the classroom. Offers a review of listening tests, materials, and teaching techniques.

- Lundsteen, S. W. "A Model of the Teaching-Learning Process for Assisting Development of Children's Thinking during Communication." *Journal of Communication* 18 (1968):412-435.

Gives sources of and elaboration of figure 3 in this report.

- Markle, S. M., and P. W. Tieman. *Instructor Manual: Really Understanding Concepts*. Second Edition. Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company, 1970.

Gives examples of concept analysis, interpretation of errors, and criterion exercises for constructing an instructional analysis of a concept. Also see their paper, "Some Principles of Instructional Design at Higher Cognitive Levels," for the International Congress for Instructional Technology, Berlin, 1972, which contains a concept analysis of "morpheme." The authors are located at the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle Campus.

- Rosner, J. "The Development and Validation of an Individualized Perceptual Skills Curriculum." Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh Learning Research and Development Center, 1972.

Also see the Research and Development Center report by J. Rosner and D. P. Simon, "The Auditory Analysis Test: An Initial Report," 1971.

Schmidt, B. "The Relationship between Questioning Levels, Strategies, and Listening Comprehension in K-3 Children." Dissertation in progress, University of California, Berkeley.

Children ages five to nine were trained by their teachers for eight weeks in factual, interpretive, and applicative listening comprehension. Teachers were trained in using a matrix of levels of questioning strategies related to the research of Taba (see reference). Verifying the earlier Taba research, those teachers who extended and tried to lift the level of questioning did obtain higher abstract levels as shown in pupil responses, rather than merely the lower, concrete levels of thought. Those teachers who used controlling behaviors and asked rhetorical questions stifled children's responses (e.g., "That was a good story, wasn't it, boys and girls?"). Results from observing and rating the video tapes of teachers, however, did not reveal any statistical differences among them. However, some marked differences appeared among their pupils. An examination of pupil variables of sex and socioeconomic status suggested that these variables apparently had no effect on the pupils' performance. However, the variable of age (as might be expected) was significantly related to performance on the test of factual, interpretive, and applicative listening comprehension. (Also see the final USOE report from the University of California, Berkeley Project Delta, *Developing Excellence in Literacy Teaching Abilities*, 1970, directed by R. B. Ruddell, as this dissertation was a part of this USOE study.) The author is located at California State University, Sacramento.

Taba, H. *Teaching Strategies and Cognitive Functioning in Elementary School Children*. USOE Cooperative Research Project No. 2404. San Francisco State College, 1966.

Within a normal classroom setting the researcher appraised certain ideas about the development of thinking and examined the effects of planned teaching strategies on the development of children's thought. She presents modifications on her earlier major tool of a coding system for classroom transactions and describes teacher training materials designed to lead students to master the abstract and symbolic form of thought much earlier and more systematically than could be expected if this development were left solely to the accidents of experience or to less appropriate strategies. Both control and experimental groups were used in this study.

Wilcox, M. A. "Comparison of Elementary School Children's Interaction in Teacher-Led and Student-Led Small Groups." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, Stanford, California, 1972.

This study was designed to investigate child autonomy in group discussion (fifth and sixth grades). The investigator predicted and confirmed that children in groups led by a trained student leader received proportionately more task-related acts than did children in groups led by a teacher. The children in the sample were from a low-income, bused, inner-city area. The discussion tasks were based upon a series of problem-solving stories by Shaftel and Shaftel (1970). These were presented orally in synchronized filmstrips and recordings which stopped at dilemma points. The leader then asked the group to discuss what was happening and to suggest a solution. The leader asked the children to put themselves in the place of the character with the problem and express ideas about his next action—they were given 15 minutes to reach a joint decision on the solution and defend this alternative against others. The investigator recorded responses on videotape.

The major assumption in the study was that an effective way of encour-

aging communication of low status children is through manipulation of the status and power of the group leader. Theoretically, the higher the status and power of the leader, the lower will be the participation of the awed students. The study hypothesized that a higher rate of participation or interactive listening is found in trained student-led groups as compared to teacher-led groups. The quality of interactive listening and the change in participation over time was explored with trained student-led members initiating a greater number of qualitative acts and making increasingly greater contributions over a period of four weeks. The effective student leadership training consisted mainly of the presentation of three rules: (1) give everyone a fair turn, (2) give many reasons, and (3) give different ideas. In the video-taped data judges looked for analytic acts, inferences, and leadership acts. The author is located at the Stanford Research Institute, Menlo Park, California.

Teaching Literature to Children, 1966-1972*

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The purpose of this report is to examine the research literature of the past six years that deals with teaching literature to children. Originally, it was to be an attempt to identify teaching behaviors associated with students' successful cognitive or affective learning of literature. The paucity of studies delineating specific teaching behaviors made that goal unrealistic; therefore, this summary includes a broad range of studies related to teaching literature to children. The research studies have been grouped in the following way: children's interests and tastes in literature; content analyses of children's literature; the effect of literature on children's reading, composition, and language abilities; children's responses to literature; teacher preparation and their practices in teaching literature; and the effects of a planned literature program on students' ability to read critically or to appreciate literature.

Anecdotal reports of single classroom experiences have been omitted since they provide no measure of control over competing hypotheses.

Children's Interests and Tastes

Several studies have updated Norvell's 1950 study of seventh to twelfth graders' interests in reading in which he found distinct sex differences. Boys liked fierce adventure and mysteries, whereas girls preferred love and sentiment, home and family life stories. Schulte's (1967) study supported the sex differences found in earlier studies in that fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys were interested in historical fiction, history, social studies, science and health, whereas girls of that age showed a preference for realistic fiction, fanciful tales, biography, recreational interests and poetry.

Feeley (1972) identified underlying interest patterns in boys and girls in grades four and five and assessed whether they preferred to

* Reprinted from *Elementary English*, November 1972. Copyright © 1972 by the National Council of Teachers of English.

Acknowledgment is gratefully made to Paul Zadosh, New York University doctoral student, for his assistance in this summary of research.

pursue these interests through reading or watching television. She found that boys preferred sports, excitement-fantastic, recreational and excitement-realistic, while girls preferred social empathy-fun and excitement, fantasy, social empathy-people and problems. All groups preferred to watch television significantly more than they chose to read in any of the interest areas.

Terry (1972) conducted a national survey of children's poetry preferences and, among other things, found that children prefer poetry which has meaning for their own lives. She found that Haiku was among the least preferred by children. Her work, plus many of Nancy Larrick's collections, should provide teachers with the information needed to bring more meaningful poetry into the literature curriculum.

Criticism of approaches used for determining children's book choices has been widespread and Lynch-Brown (1971) studied the procedures used in the past. Her assessment of approaches is valuable for people interested in determining children's interests in books.

Ford and Kopyay (1968) surveyed the kinds of stories that black inner city children and white upper middle class suburban children would like to read. Since the children ranged from kindergarten through grade three, a picture test with sentences read aloud was used. Stories of Negro heritage, history and science ranked among those preferred most, whereas animals and fantasy were least preferred.

Monson (1967) attempted to discern the kind of humor that fifth grade children responded to in literature. Children were asked to specify passages excerpted from five well known books which they thought were humorous. The excerpts were categorized as humor of character, of surprise, of the impossible, of words, and of situation. The fewest number of sex differences were noted in responses to *Henry Huggins*. Monson recommended that future studies of children's preferences use oral responses of children instead of written ones because many children from the lower socioeconomic levels were reluctant to write. Selections were considered funny more often when the children could answer yes or no or select a multiple-choice answer than when they were expected to write an explanation of passages they thought funny.

Peterson (1969) found that sixth grade children reacted differently to characters in excerpts from stories when the characters spoke in dialect. Students reading passages containing nonstandard dialect forms reacted in a neutral to mildly positive manner to the main character but more positive responses were obtained when the passages were rewritten to contain only standard English.

Ashley (1970) questioned the examination of children's reading interests without a parallel investigation of their reading dislikes. For this reason, he asked a representative sample of 900 elementary children in grades 4 through 7 to indicate their likes and dislikes of forty reading topics. He was able to rank order the reading topics according to popularity as well as to dislike showing the grade level and sex for which peaks of interest occurred. He concluded that there is very little chance to encourage good reading habits after grade 5, for at this age children's reading tastes have nearly crystallized. He also observed that reading series books, such as *Nancy Drew*, seemed to be a stage in most children's reading development. His final comment indicated that a course in children's literature was a necessary preparation for the teacher of individualized reading.

Hornburger (1970) developed a curriculum guide designed to promote understanding in human relations. She asked a panel of children's literature experts to identify selections of juvenile literature which embodied values of human relations and used the recommended books as a basis for activities to enhance children's understanding. The teacher's manual and the suggested activities were field tested to assess their effectiveness.

Content Analyses of Children's Literature

Some analyses of the content of literature have been undertaken in order to determine if various ethnic or racial groups are accurately or adequately portrayed. Bingham (1971) analyzed the illustrations of books published and recommended between 1930 and 1968 which contained black characters. Only forty-nine books met these criteria for that time period and forty-one of these were analyzed. She found that Afro-American characters were depicted with a variety of skin colors, hair textures, hair styles and other physical features; however, she found more Caucasians in all occupational roles than Negroes and only limited instances of interaction between Negro main characters and Negro and Caucasian teenagers of either sex. She recommended that illustrations depict a wider variety of physical features, occupational roles, social interactions and realistic settings in future books with black characters.

Glancy (1969) examined all books listed in Kirkus' reviewing service which suggested presence of a black character. She hypothesized (1) that some of the characteristics of the negative stereotype of the black American would still appear in over half the books, and (2) that there would be trends toward a positive stereotype of the Negro. The data support the first hypothesis, namely, stereotypes of poor and not striving black skinned people living in rural areas and

the white main character, were found in over half the books. The hypothesis that there would be trends toward a positive stereotype of the Negro was not supported.

Prior to Glancy and Bingham's work, Gast (1967) studied the treatment of the Chinese, American Indians, Japanese, Negroes, and Spanish Americans in contemporary children's fiction published between 1945 and 1962. Stereotypes of minority Americans in children's literature were identified but the majority were positive and complimentary. Gast believed the differences in race, creed, and customs of minority people were dignified and that similarities rather than differences among minority and majority Americans with regard to behavior patterns, attitudes and values were emphasized. Gast has continued to observe multi-ethnic children's literature and commented on the subtle techniques used in more recent publications (Gast, 1970).

Broderick (1971) analyzed the image of the black in juvenile fiction published from 1827 to 1967. She summarized that the trend has been one of negative images and stereotyped characters. Rosner (in progress) is analyzing the text and illustrations of picture books published in the decade since the Civil Rights legislation. She is attempting to identify the presence, scope, and changes in certain manifestations of racist ideology that may appear in picture books through portrayal of behavior, language, appearance, economic and social class, community, and cultural membership. Agree (also in progress) is developing a measure of content analysis based on the attitudes of specialists in children's literature. With this measure, she is analyzing the portrayal of Afro-Americans as delineated in the text and illustrations of a select group of children's trade books published in America from 1950 to 1970.

The Effect of Literature on Children's Reading, Composition and Language Abilities

Cohen's (1966) study of the effect of a special program in literature on the vocabulary and reading achievement of second grade children showed that experimental groups gained significantly more than controls on the criterion measures. At the time, Cohen surmised that changes had also occurred in the oral language of children in the experimental groups, although she had not recorded data to substantiate this. Following her lead, Strickland (1971) studied the effects of a special literature program on linguistically different Negro kindergarten children and Cullinan, Jaggar and Strickland (in press) studied the same program for kindergarten through grade three. Results of the two studies indicate that the greatest change in language

performance occurred at the kindergarten level and that children who were initially nonstandard speakers did significantly increase their ability to reproduce standard English structures due to the literature based oral language program.

Fisher's (in progress) program measured the effects of having student teachers read aloud to children during a three month period. One experimental group heard literature read aloud and discussed it, whereas the second experimental group shared and discussed varied topics with stress upon adult-child interaction. Although she found no statistically significant differences evident in children's language over the short term experimental period, there were indications that a longer program would allow them to emerge.

Lyons (in progress) used the same two experimental treatments but measured the effects on children's word recognition and comprehension scores. Similar to Fisher's report, indications of change were found but lack of statistical significance in differences between groups again occurred.

Sirota (1971) used a pretest-posttest control group design to see if a planned literature program of daily oral reading by the teacher would affect the quality and quantity of voluntary reading of fifth grade children. She found that the planned program of oral reading did affect the total number of books children read plus the number of books chosen from the selected recommended list. A concomitant increase in reading achievement of experimental subjects was observed.

Shnayer (1967) found that students were able to read beyond their measured ability when encountering high interest material.

Evertts (1967), Sebesta (1967), and Thompson (1967) reported the inter-relationships of composition and literature in the elementary grades. The Nebraska Curriculum for English is a comprehensive program based on the use and study of literature from grades one through six. Children's composition is an important element of each unit in which the literary selection is used as a stimulus. Evertts, Sebesta, and Thompson reported the effects of the literature-based curriculum on the syntax of children's writing, that is, competence in composition develops from a continuing exposure to literature of superior quality.

Burgdorf (1966) found that children who listened to stories read aloud by the teacher showed a superiority in drawing inferences when compared to children who read the stories to themselves.

A study conducted by Porter (1969) not only assessed the effects of a program of reading aloud on middle grade students' reading achievement, but also measured the effects on achievement and atti-

tudes of the high school students who conducted the reading aloud program. High school juniors read to students in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades twice a week for twenty weeks and concurrently attended a seminar to prepare them to use prose and poetry effectively in the classroom. She found that the program of reading aloud did increase the reading achievement and interest in reading of the middle grade students but that fourth graders increased more than fifth or sixth graders. The program of reading aloud was beneficial to the high school readers in terms of both reading achievement and positive self-concept.

Children's Response to Literature

The Dartmouth Seminar report stressed the role of response to literature and that the proper response to it is to "share in the author's satisfaction that it was as it was and not otherwise." Britton, in the collection of papers edited by Squire (1968), goes on to say that a sense of literary form increases as one finds satisfaction in a greater range and diversity of works. The sense of literary form grows from within from a legacy of past satisfactions. The Dartmouth study groups stressed reading aloud as an excellent practice for classroom teachers to stimulate children's responses.

Evidence that children's response to literature is a difficult area to research is seen in the meager number of studies available. Purves (1968) has contributed a notable effort in analyzing and categorizing the types of written response to a literary work. His category system could serve as a useful tool for research in this area.

There is very little research evidence to indicate whether teachers engage in analysis of literature with children or what the results of such instruction might be. Although the recommendations for teaching literary analysis appear in numerous curriculum guides and textbooks, the effects of teaching analysis have seldom been tested. Two notable exceptions are the Wolf, Huck, and King (1967) and Morris (1970) reports. In the critical reading project, Wolf, Huck and King trained teachers in literary analysis and prepared teaching plans for grades one through six that included analysis of fiction and non-fiction. Results as measured by The Ohio State University Critical Reading Test showed that groups receiving instruction in analysis and evaluation performed at a higher level than groups just given exposure to literature for non-fiction. Morris had similar results with sixth graders who were given direct instruction intended to develop understanding and appreciation of literature. Her control groups that were given an incidental, unstructured approach performed equally well on the literature appreciation test. From these two re-

ports, it can be inferred that teaching skills of analysis and evaluation of literature does not, in fact, significantly increase children's understanding or appreciation of literature more than free exploration of literature. Perhaps one of the crucial variables for investigation is the one proposed for the National Conference on Research in English study: what teaching behaviors are associated with children's successful performance in understanding and appreciating literature?

More precise analysis of children's intellectual development and their response to literature is currently being conducted by Moline (in progress). She is assessing the ability of six- to nine-year-old children to take the point of view of a literary character and to determine if that ability is related to performance on the Piagetian tasks of localization of topographical positions and coordination of perspectives.

Teacher Preparation and Practices in Teaching Literature

Studies that focus on teacher practices have seldom identified behaviors of the specificity desired for analysis of teaching. Generalizations about the things teachers do or know come closest to identifying teaching behaviors.

Tom (1969) conducted a national survey of what teachers read aloud to children in the middle grades. She found that nearly half of the teachers do not read aloud at all and many of those who do read selections that are considered to be the old classics. Tom found that only half of the teachers had taken an undergraduate course in children's literature within the past eight years; one-fourth of the others had taken such a course more than thirteen years previously. Less than half of the 582 respondents listed any participation in an in-service course or conference on children's literature. The forty percent of the teachers who do not read aloud gave the following reasons most often for their lack of reading: (1) they do not have enough time; (2) other subjects are more important; and (3) they need to know more about children's books.

Miller (1969) identified four basic teacher competencies which were important in fostering interest in books. They were: (1) knowledge of a wide range of children's books; (2) knowledge of children's interests; (3) knowledge of how to create a favorable reading climate; and (4) sensitivity to literary quality.

Cohen (1966) trained the experimental teachers in her study to read stories with attention to phrasing, dramatic quality in the voice, pacing, and knowledge of the story before reading. Teachers were to read for the children's pleasure, to let their voices tremble with fear or rise in excitement as the story demanded. They were to watch

children's eyes, facial expressions, and their laughter to see if they were following the story; and teachers were instructed to follow the story reading with discussion, questions, illustrations by the children, construction, dramatization, photographs or browsing among the books.

The teaching behaviors that Sirota (1971) found to be associated with successful teaching of literature included many of the above. She also stressed teachers' enthusiasm and noted that *engagement* is the key word. She insisted that teachers be familiar with the story, be relaxed, avoid interruptions and vary the quality and volume of their voices. Teachers were to vary the pace and rhythm and to allow children to react to the story but not to wring tortured interpretations from them. Sirota asked that teachers allow the story to stand on its own merit and pointed out it was not necessary to do anything as a related activity unless it was a genuine interest of the children. Sirota recommended that a study of the effects of teachers' attitudes toward books upon children's responses be conducted. It became apparent during her study that teachers' attitudes toward literature were influential in determining the responses that children made to books.

Strickland (1971) asked teachers to introduce a story by linking it to some experience the children had had and to pique curiosity by asking provocative questions pertaining to the story. She, too, asked that teachers present the story in an enthusiastic manner; however, since she was interested in promoting oral language, she wanted the group to talk it over, to discuss the characters in the story and to engage in an oral language activity such as dramatization, puppetry, or choral speaking.

The Effects of Structured vs. Unstructured Approaches to Teaching Literature

Some of the most stringent research designs have been used to investigate the question of whether a sequentially planned structured approach to teaching literature to children would be superior to an incidental unstructured approach. Wolf, Huck, and King (1967) used a pretest-posttest control group design in which the experimental groups in grades 1-6 were taught to recognize the qualities of good children's literature and were exposed to a sequentially planned curriculum. The control groups had similar titles available and were encouraged to use literature in all curriculum areas, although no attention was drawn to literary criticism. The control groups at each grade level scored as well on the criterion literature test as the experimental groups, with the exception of the third grade.

A more recent study of structured vs. incidental teaching of literature by Morris (1970) used teachers as their own controls by having

them exchange groups and methods at mid-year. Groups did not differ at the end of the year on the literature appreciation test as a result of the treatment; however, IQ differences significantly affected students' understanding of poetry and prose.

In summary, teaching literature to children has not been widely accepted as a critical part of elementary school curricula. It is most often used as supplementary material in other subject areas, or as material in teaching reading skills. Odland's (1969) survey showed that literature is seldom recognized as a separate area in the curriculum.

Here are twenty hypotheses raised in these studies which are partially supported by research:

Teacher Preparation and Practices

1. Teachers need to know a wide range of children's literature before they can teach it to children. (Cohen, 1966; Tom, 1969; Miller, 1969; Strickland, 1971; Sirota, 1971.)
2. Only half of the teachers in a national survey have had a children's literature course in the past eight years. (Tom, 1969.)
3. Forty percent of the teachers in the middle grades do not read aloud to students. (Tom, 1969.)

Effect of Literature on Children's Reading Composition and Language Abilities

4. Teachers' reading aloud daily is associated with a measurable increase in children's language ability. (Cohen, 1966; Strickland, 1971; Fisher, 1972; Cullinan, Jaggar and Strickland, in press.)
5. Stories read aloud to children help them to draw inferences at a higher level than when the children read the stories to themselves. (Burgdorf, 1966.)
6. A special program in literature using daily oral reading by teachers has a significant effect on children's reading ability. (Cohen, 1966; Porter, 1969; Sirota, 1971; Lyons, in press.)
7. Children are able to read beyond their measured reading level when they encounter high interest material. (Shnayer, 1967.)
8. Competence in composition and increasing mastery over syntax develops from a continuing exposure to literature of superior quality. (Evertts, 1967.)

Children's Preferences in Literature

9. Boys and girls show distinctly different interest patterns in literature in the middle grades. (Schulte, 1967; Feeley, 1972.)

10. Passages written in nonstandard dialect do not elicit as favorable a response toward the character as passages written in standard English. (Peterson, 1969.)
11. Informational selections have an appeal for primary grade children. (Ford and Koplyay, 1968.)
12. Children's reading tastes have largely crystallized by fifth grade. (Ashley, 1970.)
13. Children prefer poetry that is relevant to their own lives. (Terry, in progress.)

Responses to Literature

14. Children's responses to literature can be assessed more fully if they are given orally rather than in written form. (Monson, 1967.)
15. Written responses to literature can be categorized in a comprehensive taxonomy. (Purves, 1968.)
16. There may be developmental stages in children's ability to understand points of view in literature comparable to the developmental stages identified by Piaget. (Moline, in progress.)

The Role of Literature in the Curriculum

17. A preplanned-sequentially structured curriculum does not foster more favorable attitudes to literature or increase children's ability to read critically than does open exploration of quality literature. (Wolf, Huck and King, 1967; Morris, 1970.)
18. Children's understanding of human relations values can be enhanced through the use of juvenile literature embodying such values. (Hornburger, 1970.)
19. Literature is used as an adjunct to other curricula areas in most elementary schools. (Odland, 1969.)

Content Analyses of Children's Literature

20. Books with Negroes as main characters have been limited in supply, do not portray the wide variety of roles and social interactions deemed necessary, and are not showing trends toward more positive stereotypes of Negroes. (Gast, 1967; Glancy, 1969; Bingham, 1971; Broderick, 1971; Agree, in progress; Rosner, in progress.)

Summary and Conclusions

The specificity needed to study teacher effectiveness has not been found in the teaching of literature to children and is not likely to be found until the following requirements are met:

1. Generally accepted descriptions of effective teachers of children's literature.
2. More precise measurement and observation instruments, particularly of the affective domain.
3. More widely accepted valuing of the teaching of literature to children.
4. Research designed to assess process variables, the human actions which transform the raw materials of input into opportunities for language, that is, the nature of teacher activities.

Additional Areas of Needed Research Identified in This Survey

1. The effect of teachers' attitudes toward books on children's responses.
2. Selection patterns of children when the same titles in both hard-cover and paperback are available.
3. The amount and type of analysis of literature performed in classrooms and the results of these activities.

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Teacher Behavior and Children's Oral Language/ Speaking, 1966-1972: Research Review and Critique

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No studies were found which could meet fully the criteria for inclusion in an analysis of the research literature on specific teacher behaviors which focused on oral language or speaking. Of the several possible sources of difficulty in locating pertinent studies, four broad categories will be considered in this report.

Perhaps the most obvious—it could be said blatant—difficulty was in most instances traceable to the absence of an explicit theory of language underlying the study or series of propositions. If a theory did emerge, in varying degrees of explicitness, it generally reflected either a lack of information about how language is acquired and used, an abundance of misinformation, or, on occasion, a bundle of vacuous, outdated prescriptions about how to facilitate language development, all of which could be predicted to cause more mischief than good. Where there was an expression of theory or principle regarding language acquisition or use, it all too frequently was indefensible in light of much work that has been conducted during the past decade and a half. The mention of only a few studies should suffice to point up sharply the extent of this situation.

A second major inadequacy in the reports of several otherwise interesting studies was related to theories of language and language use. This inadequacy was the failure to get beyond gross descriptions of complex matters, including behaviors, or, if the studies were focused narrowly, as in a dissertation, their generalizations were considerably out of proportion to what actually was done as a piece of work.

A third area of difficulty became apparent in trying to disentangle studies which used what was cited as a handicapped population of some sort from those which used "normal" subjects as the source of data. A good many studies under initial review yielded little, inasmuch

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as the findings, even if designated as significant in one manner or another, dealt, for example, with "speech handicapped" or "culturally deprived" or "low achieving" pupils. There simply was not comparability among studies which had in common other characteristics.

A fourth area of difficulty may well be traceable to the nature and extent of the criteria, as well as their relation to a few studies which did attempt to outline, manipulate, and then evaluate specific behavior(s). It is just possible that a broader look at the notion of teacher and learner behavior(s) may well be in order.

Using as a general outline these four areas of difficulty, this report reviews some investigations which were deemed to be relevant, but mainly inadequate, to the search criteria and concludes with some suggestions for more fruitful areas of search as well as sources of better research and instructional strategies.

If all who conducted oral language-related studies took seriously the dictum of a linguist who recently claimed, "At the present time, there is almost universal agreement that language is not a habit system, is not teachable, and is not best described as being composed of completely independent systems of sound and meaning" (Wardhaugh, 1971), there undoubtedly would be much less reported. Even better, there would be much less confusion, to say nothing of outright nonsense, with which to contend. For example, in an article titled "Inquiry in Elementary English: A Rationale and Means for Classroom Language Learning," Faix (1971) quickly moved from apparently the best of intention and an obvious acquaintance with much good work in what might be termed the elementary language arts area to a position which may or may not enhance some children's demonstrated knowledge *about* their language but which in all likelihood will have very little effect on increasing their ability to *use* their language more effectively. In fact, his first footnote illustrated this point:

The writer suggests that the term "language arts" refers to a generalized area of study which may not be appropriate for use with modern concepts of language learning. Rather, since we seek disciplined knowledge into the structures and methods of inquiry of the English language, of necessity the term "English" or "language learning" seems more in keeping with the new trends. Further, today we realize the need to look at language learning on a K-12 basis. It seems more feasible to regard language learning as the discipline of "English" than to regard K-6 as "language arts" and grades 7-12 as "English." (p. 50)

In an even more serious vein, Faix settled for too broad a stereotype,

and in this instance an inaccurate stereotype, when appending another footnote:

We are now aware that too often the culturally deprived child has not developed these natural gifts for inquiry into his language. (p. 52)

By the last pages of this article, the author's main concern seemed to be fairly clear: "Inductive teaching of grammar-usage poses special problems in the elementary school . . ." (p. 58). And there we have it; language learning is taken to be grammar-usage—in the narrowest sense. In spite of his earlier claim that "there is but scant research on the distinction between 'acquiring' and 'inquiring' language" (p. 51), the author in the main failed to keep clear the very distinction he presumably wished to make.

To illustrate further the possible damage and certain mischief which can stem from a confusion between teaching, learning, and using language and what should be a central and informed focus on facilitating children's language use, an article addressed to the readers of *Childhood Education* is cited. One might search out this article, heartened by the apparently enlightened approach indicated by the title: "Too Much Shushing—Let Children Talk" (Broman, 1969). A summary quotation without comment, however, should adequately identify the problem here:

Teaching language requires teachers to provide conditions that are conducive for children to talk. The following suggestions will aid the teacher in providing these conditions for language growth:

- provide proper physical conditions for individual and small group work
- speak in an animated and pleasing voice
- always use correct language
- avoid speaking when children should be doing the talking
- help children eliminate bad language habits
- praise the children for correct language usage
- avoid needless criticism
- provide language opportunities that are purposeful, accurate, and fulfill a language need
- check the children's use of language through listening as they talk to other adults, and as they talk to the teacher
- plan for an integrated language development program in all subject areas, as well as daily language skill class (pp. 133-134)

This article is introduced with the following italicized subheading:

What inhibits language growth—and what promotes it? Here are some practical answers from . . . (p. 132)

An all too representative point of view is expressed in an article which appeared in *American Education*, a journal published by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Inasmuch as the article was not dealing with speakers of a language other than English, the title, "Say It Right and They Will Too," accurately portrayed the sentiment and quite possibly the lack of seriousness with which some problems are addressed. This report essentially was a piece of public relations for a program intended as an "intensive education course for mothers and fathers of preschool children" which had been funded for \$280,000 because, in the words of the author, "the idea sounded reasonable" in 1967 to the USOE. "The program is a kind of head start on Head Start" (Lloyd, 1971, p. 5). Lloyd straightforwardly related that

the first classes were amateurish. . . . No significant teaching guides were available, no norms indicated how far a child should have progressed in his speech by a certain age. Staff members dug the data out of library books; . . . they used information gathered from their own classroom experiences. (p. 5)

One example an instructor allegedly gave to the learning parents of a two year old is directly quoted by Lloyd:

"When your child makes mistakes, help him to do his own correcting by occasionally making mistakes in your own speech and casually correcting yourself." (p. 6-7)

Lloyd claimed that many parents came to see "the program as an idea for teaching their young child how to speak," and he provided the following assessment as an example of a reaction to a mother who had complained in a session that her child wouldn't say the word *water*: "Because a child won't say *water* doesn't necessarily mean he has a speech problem; it may be emotional" (p. 7). This sort of comment may be sincere but it clearly is vague to the point of being simplistic.

In contrast to Lloyd's report, which barely specified the population, a study by Drdek (1970) suggested far more concretely what gains might be made by judiciously using such manipulanda as blocks, photographs, magnets, shapes, and rhythm instruments to stimulate the oral expression of preschool children. Drdek's study also pointed up the need to take into account a number of enabling or prerequisite behaviors or understandings prior to, or at least concomitant with, concentrating on their language use. Some of what the author called

"guided perceptual experiences" related, for example, to an understanding of what and how to look for, or at, and more specific facets, such as part-whole distinctions. Though overly broad descriptions were the major content here, there nonetheless were a number of good suggestions for trial and refinement.

At the kindergarten level, a dissertation by Lesh (1968) on the development of standard stimuli to elicit specific oral responses revealed

no [statistically] significant differences in sex, age, educational background of parents, or birth order between the groups of children from whom the expected patterns were not elicited. Further study is recommended in which the stimuli are used with children from different socioeconomic neighborhoods and with younger children.

Unfortunately, the last sentence cited is indicative of too many studies of this sort. That is, the strategy seems to suggest that if one doesn't succeed in finding significant differences as a result of using gross demographic data and possibly even more gross measures with a so-called normal population, one should try for significance by sampling a younger as well as a presumably less privileged group.

Two other representative dissertations which used third grade pupils as subjects can be criticized on a number of similar grounds. Felix (1969) reported on her comparison of the effect of two methods of instruction on the spontaneous speech habits of thirty third-grade, disadvantaged New Orleans pupils. She had hoped to show differential gains in pupil behavior by comparing what she designated as a program of "Unified Language Experience Approach" with one designated as "Teaching English as a Foreign Language," and comparing both with a control group program which was described as "subjects exposed to learning tasks centered around the Scott, Foresman Basal Reading series assigned to the third grade." Related to what for me remains as the global nature of these three presumably different approaches, and the possible confusions between what the author termed "spontaneous habits" and pupils' oral reading performance, this study also used too broad a brush.

In his dissertation work on the effects of a systematic group language development program with low-achieving, regular class, third grade pupils, Cross (1968) cited as his major purpose the intent to "investigate the effectiveness of the Peabody Language Development Kit (Experimental Edition, Level III) in enhancing verbal intelligence, achievement, and language ability." He used a number of standardized tests (Thorndike Intelligence Test; Iowa Test of Basic Skills; Stanford Binet; Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test) as well as a num-

ber of his own making, which included mean length response counts and type-token ratios taken from language samples elicited while subjects watched a silent movie. Despite the more than conventional care accorded such complex phenomena as language use, and the author's conclusion that "a group language development program (PLDK) as taught by the regular classroom teacher significantly enhanced verbal intelligence (SB, IQ, and MA), number of responses, and even reading as measured by the ITBS," the absence of specific teacher behaviors would leave many regular teachers unconvinced.

The importance of recording teacher language use is illustrated by Zahonik (1970). From his study of elementary pupils' perceptions of the teacher's verbal feedback, he concluded that although "no hard and fast prescriptions for teaching can be drawn from these pupils' perceptions, . . . they do generate some speculative suggestions for teachers' verbal feedback during the teaching-learning act" (p. 113). He went on to enumerate some general notions, such as the importance of pupils' knowing that an answer is correct or incorrect and the reason why such is the case. But the point is that even in this reasonably controlled and carefully conducted study, and with as much specificity or as many operational definitions as were provided by the author, still the results are general to the point of being less than maximally helpful.

From a comprehensively designed study, McConnell (1969) presented research findings from a language and sensory-perceptual training program. The subjects were "100 2-5-year-old, culturally deprived Nashville, Tennessee, children [from] two community day-care centers. . . . Both language input and output were the focus of instruction, which was carried out through face-to-face conversations between the child and teacher, *with each child being required to use appropriate sentence structure, verb form, and word endings*" (emphasis added). Although McConnell reported that "in general, the experimental subjects made greater gains on the sensory-perceptual, linguistic, and readiness measures than did the control group," the unit of measure for "linguistic gains" is questionable, given the rigidly narrow criteria of the tasks. In particular, such monitoring or manipulating of young children's productions, such as "word endings," places far too much emphasis on the superficial and usually fleeting form, while risking a loss of or, in the least, strongly discouraging the substantive participation one presumably wants.

Even more directly related to speech problems was Applebaum's (1970) report on rating the speech behavior change of elementary and secondary students, in which he concluded that "judges' measurements were reliable indices of communicative behavior" and then ex-

tended his findings to "any classroom, industry or organizational structure where behavior is the object of measurement"—a situation hardly in keeping with a number of other studies which would refute such claims. For example, a well-controlled study by Muma (1967) suggested the need for caveats in a wide range of investigations into child language acquisition and use. Until rather recently, much misinformation has been noticeable in the speech pathology literature and this situation had been exacerbated by the more general concern for such things as dialect problems and the like. Muma's dissertation focused on a comparison of certain aspects of productivity and grammar in speech samples of fluent and nonfluent four-year-old children. He used a transformational generative grammar model, reporting his overall finding that fluent and nonfluent children were

similar in speech performance except that communication units were shorter and morphological errors were more infrequent for the fluent children than the nonfluent children. *The findings indicate that speech pathologists should not consider linguistic skill as an explanatory factor in fluency differences in young children.* (emphasis added)

By 1971 Hopper's article in the *Speech Teacher* provided an insightful balance to both the seeming unawareness of modern child language investigations and the excessive claims—informed or otherwise—of one particular school of linguistic theory. Titled "Expanding the Notion of Competence: Implications for Elementary Speech Programs," the article began by noting the "substantial discussion recently about implications of psycholinguistics for instructional programs in speech and oral language for elementary school children" (p. 29), referring here especially to an article by Wood (1968). Hopper quickly moved on to deal with the importance of what is now conventionally acknowledged—the distinction between competence and performance—but his italicized qualification in this regard is most important:

Along with acquisition of basic grammatical and semantic structures, the child is acquiring an ability to apply his linguistic knowledge in a functionally appropriate and predictable manner in many different communication situations. (p. 31)

Quoting a paper by Slobin (1968) entitled "Questions of Language Development in Cross-Cultural Perspective," Hopper continued:

... we must examine not only *linguistic competence* (the rules of grammar), but also what might be called a *pragmatic aspect of competence* (the rules of social interaction). (p. 31)

As a source of data for his views, Hopper included some discus-

sion of his own dissertation, entitled "Communicative Development and Children's Responses to Questions," and his findings are relevant to this review. In one experiment, he evaluated the responses of three- and four-year-old children according to what he termed their "grammatical appropriateness (message form and code)" and found no difference in their responses. He did, however, find that four-year-old pupils did significantly better than their three-year-old counterparts when it came to evaluating correct answers—what he called "topic." In an interesting manipulation of context (present, absent, or interference conditions), he also discovered some differences. For example, using the prompt, "What do you do with a ball?" while showing the child a ball (context present), while keeping the ball out of view (context absent), or while showing a pencil (interference context), he found no differences among the different conditions for four-year-old children. The three-year-old pupils, however, did very poorly with the context absent condition and even worse with the interference condition. Hopper suggested that emphasis should be placed on "not how much grammar the child knows but the ways he can put to use what he knows in a functionally appropriate manner" (p. 34).

In brief, Hopper argued for greater weight to be placed upon the *situational* aspects of language learning and use, surely a point applicable to classroom instruction and one which has received increasingly strong attention by such major contributors to the field as Cazden (1970, 1972) and her colleagues (Cazden, John and Hymes, 1972).

Hopper cited several recent works which this reviewer also believes warrant careful attention as good sources for classroom facilitation of oral language development and use. For example, he included Labov's (1970) analysis of the logic of nonstandard English, a technical yet readable account of dramatic differences in language production induced by situational changes. Hopper also included reference to the work of Hymes (1971), perhaps not that well known to teachers but one whose work should be known, particularly his long but eminently readable introduction to the book he co-edited with Cazden and John (1972). The work of one of Hymes' other colleagues, Goffman, on behavior and relations in public places (1963, 1971), though at first mention perhaps not immediately recognizable by many teachers, should be consulted for possibly some very rich clues to understanding different ways of using language. Hopper managed to include as well the relevance of Lois Bloom's (1970) work on early language development and the relation between form and function in emerging grammars. A good introduction to her point of view and the potential relevance of her work can be found in her predominantly negative

review of Menyuk's *Sentences Children Use* (1969). Menyuk is one of the best known individuals identified with child language research during the past decade, but one of Bloom's points is telling in its emphasis on current concerns. Bloom acknowledged Menyuk's awareness of the "limitations inherent in studies of children's utterances" and pointed out, for example, "*the need for studies that take the context of utterances into account*" (emphasis added, p. 184).

One potentially very rewarding area which deserves much more attention than it apparently has been given is the relation between oral language development and reading, but with particular emphasis on enhanced reading skills as facilitators of oral language development, rather than the other way around. In this regard, C. Chomsky's exploratory work should be of notable interest, considering the strong correlation she found between a number of her reading exposure measures and language development. Similarly, as reported by Macken in a recent *Linguistic Reporter*, Moskowitz's (1972) examination of the "psychological reality of the Chomsky and Halle vowel shift rules by using nonsense forms [from which he] concluded that it is knowledge of orthography rather than verbal phonologies that teaches children much of the vowel shift phenomena" (1972, p. 6) is provocatively related.

One study which stood alone in being almost as conceptually sophisticated as it seemed to be field-relevant was Drumheller's (1970) treatment of verbal and nonverbal knowledge in curriculum development and teaching. In it, Drumheller achieved some success in bringing together the insights, for example, of Bloom, et al. (1956), Ellfeldt, et al. (1958), Witkin (1962), Guilford (1967), and Metraux (1959). There are no data in the usual sense here, but there are several careful considerations and, importantly, conclusions which would seem to be most pertinent to oral language classroom instruction.

In concluding this review, several general references should be cited, most of them because they should serve as introductory pieces—places where teachers can, and this reviewer believes should, start (Dingwall, 1971; Fleming, 1972). As is obvious to many readers, this reviewer is convinced that much recent sociolinguistic research points the way toward improved research into oral language instruction strategies. What might have appropriately begun this paper is a brief citation from an introduction to a chapter on sociolinguistics; for me it would suffice as an overall goal for much of language arts instruction:

The ability to use one's language correctly in a variety of socially determined situations is as much and as central a part of linguistic "competence" as the ability to produce grammatically well-formed sentences. (Pride, 1970, p. 287)

A not dissimilar utterance by Labov speaks at greater length and more eloquently to the same point:

... in the past fifteen years, there has been a noticeable movement away from the extreme asocial position in theoretical work towards a view of linguistic structure and evolution which includes the evidence of every-day speech outside of the university community. This movement has been motivated primarily by the desire to find a sounder empirical base for linguistic theory, and by a conviction that social factors play a larger role in the evolution of language than most linguists have been willing to admit. The movement towards a socially realistic base in research was also a response to the feeling that linguistic knowledge should be applied, if possible, to the urgent social problems of the inner cities. This program requires an enlargement of our notion of *langue* or the "competence" of the native speaker, to include skill in the use of language—what Hymes has called "communicative competence." It has been necessary to break down the institutionalized barrier between language and speech, and make everyday speech available as evidence for linguistic theory; this in turn has required the removal of the barrier between the linguist and the human being. (1971, p. 43)

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Teaching Behaviors in Reading Instruction

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What distinguishes good teachers from their colleagues? Which of the ingredients comprising their behaviors contribute to making a teacher outstanding? The general consensus that a good teacher has pupils who not only achieve but also enjoy doing so is not sufficient to describe such an individual, for these may be considered reflections or outcomes, not specific characteristics or behaviors of the teacher. Similar family backgrounds, levels of education, and work experiences are not equivalent to one teaching result. With all of these factors held constant in teachers, different effects on children are produced. It is a temptation to declare that good teachers are born, not made; however, those of us committed to the value of the educational process feel uneasy about such a nebulous qualification. Without a firm statement of what the good teacher actually does, we find it difficult to justify our claim that a "born" teacher with education would be even better.

To focus on discovering behaviors of teachers in classrooms seems a logical beginning, for teachers do not communicate at an intuitive level but through their behaviors. Children receive perceptible signals. Studying the patterning and categories of teaching behaviors should help teachers to shape their own behaviors toward more effective educative relationships with children.

Isolated teaching behaviors which can neither be remembered nor discussed in a meaningful way are not as significant to study as is the grouping of overt behaviors exhibited by the participants or members in the classroom according to more or less objective and explicit categories of behavior. The members themselves behave according to the ordering of cognitive and affective structures and their content. If study results are to influence teaching behaviors, we will have to discover how teachers can perceive categories of behavior which are not already a part of their own repertoire, that is, how can they reorganize and change the focus of their existing mental structures and integrate new ones.

Teaching Behavior Reflecting Method Prescriptions

Method prescriptions for teaching behaviors are more or less explicit in the major contemporary approaches for reading instruction.

For example, the various basal reader series carry step-by-step prescriptions for teachers to follow in the reading program. Proponents of the language experience and other approaches also proceed in instruction according to method prescriptions. Several investigators studied whether or not the method prescriptions were carried out by teachers in practice. They wanted to discover if observed teaching behaviors are distinctively expressive of an approach.

Harris and Serwer (1966) found that teachers who were proponents of different approaches did show disparate classroom behaviors according to their approach. The different methods and the behaviors reflecting the methods were, however, equally effective by third grade for teaching children to achieve in reading. They also found that teachers whose behaviors were most characteristic of their approach helped children to higher achievement in reading. For Harris and Serwer, then, we could say that there is not just one set of effective teaching behaviors when long range reading achievement is an objective.

Kendrick and Bennett (1966) found, as did Harris, Morrison, Serwer, and Gold (1968), that teacher classroom behaviors reflected method prescriptions and were different for different approaches. They also found the various methods differentially effective for different learning objectives and within different subgroups of the population.

Chall and Feldmann's (1966) most effective teachers were those who used both methods and whose behaviors showed competence, a thinking approach to learning, sound-symbol emphasis, and an appropriate level of the lesson. They did not train the teachers of their study, and many of the teachers did not display behaviors reflecting method prescriptions. Chall and Feldmann found that many teachers claimed that they were proponents of a particular method but did not reflect method prescriptions in their classroom behaviors; their pupils did not achieve as well as those of teachers who did adhere to the established teaching guidelines for an approach.

The above studies appear to suggest that method prescriptions, when followed, can be an important influence on teacher behavior, and when teachers are well-versed in them, they result in child reading achievement. Therefore, education and supervision of teachers according to method prescriptions may have a definite influence on teacher behaviors and child achievement.

Investigators of classroom interaction have shown that teacher questions consume a very large part of reading instruction. When questioning behavior is central to reading instruction, teachers, by their questions, can limit child participation to specific literal answers

or can prompt the child to expand on or originate a topic. By the level of their questions they can help a child to give right or error responses. Thus, by their questions, teachers can control the general quality of performance of the child in reading instruction.

Guszek (1967) found that teachers who claimed they were basal reader proponents asked questions which allowed only lower level responses from children of a literal and specific-as-to-content nature. Attempting to explain why teachers use predominantly lower level questions, he proposed that such behavior might arise in the teacher's perception of children's ability level. Guszek found, however, that even in higher grade levels teachers continued to ask lower level questions. On the few occasions when teachers did ask questions leading to more complex thought, they were too difficult, forcing children to make error responses with teachers paying little attention to response congruence. Teachers did not seem able to gauge their questions to the thinking abilities of children. It should be noted here that Chall and Feldmann (1966) found effective teachers geared their lessons to the ability level of children. Perhaps this lack of success in reaching the thought level of children is what leads teachers to fall back on literal and specific questions. Also, from the hastiness of their retreat and their inattentiveness to higher level responses, we must conclude that many teachers see reading instruction, even for advanced grades, as a commitment to the specific and literal aspects of reading content.

In a study similar to Guszek's, Haffner and Slobodian (1969) obtained supportive results. In both research reports the investigators faulted basal reader prescriptions for this restriction of the quality of child participation.

Bartolome (1969), like Chall and Feldmann, found that teachers who said they were basal reader proponents did not exhibit behaviors prescribed by their approach. He asked teachers to prepare their own objectives for reading instruction and found their classroom behaviors not to be related to the realization of these objectives. Thus, teachers, without help, seem unable to translate statements of objectives into constructive teaching behaviors in the classroom. In contrast to Guszek, and Haffner and Slobodian, Bartolome stated that following basal reader prescriptions would have led teachers to provide opportunities for higher levels of thought in the reading program.

Browne's (1971) analysis of protocol-like data revealed once again that teachers did not gear the level of their lessons to the abilities of children and often asked questions that children could not answer. While response incongruity was usually ignored for more complex questions, it was attended to for children engaged in the early skill

level of learning to read and resulted in their making many error responses. Teachers, Browne states, appeared to find little flexibility in early reading content to enable them to find sufficient lower level questions to provide children with opportunities to make correct responses. In light of all of the above, it does not seem inappropriate to question the heavy use of questioning behavior in early reading instruction.

Wolf, Huck, and King (1967) found that with instruction and the provision of special materials, teachers could learn to make use of higher level questions in the classroom. As a result of using such questions to discuss specially prepared reading materials, their students performed better on tests designed to measure critical reading abilities. They did not explore questioning behavior of teachers in the earliest stages of reading instruction.

Morrison (1968) found that teachers who made exclusive use of basal texts in reading instruction showed less interactive and individualized behaviors than did teachers who used more than one text or who used the language experience approach. Children in single-text classrooms displayed fewer interactive and more negative behaviors. Morrison found single basal text teachers asking questions at a rate of about sixty per thirty-minute reading instruction period. Restriction of content seemed to limit both the pattern and the quality of interaction.

Harris and Serwer (1966), however, did find slight advantages for the basal reader method over the language experience approach with respect to comprehension and attitude toward reading. They also found that teachers who were most competent in their particular method and followed its prescriptions helped their students to higher achievement in reading. However, their most impressive and unique finding was that instructional reading time, not time spent in reading-related activities, was positively correlated with reading achievement. Hence, it would seem important to study the limits of the amount of instructional time beyond which there would be no further increases in achievement. In any such investigation we would want to remember that Harris and Serwer's teachers were competent in their method, for it seems unlikely that, in light of the evidence reported in this paper, teachers in general would bring out greater reading achievement by increasing their instructional time.

These studies on questioning suggest to us that it is not enough for teachers to know about and be able to use different categories of questions; they must also know how and when to use them in a planned sequence. Effective teaching behavior must be interactive and take account of the receiver as well as the initiator.

Teaching Behaviors Reflecting Teachers' Personality Variables

Anastasiow (1969) explored the source of teaching behaviors as reflections of teacher personality. The investigator stated that the evidence supports the view that teaching behaviors are expressions of different teacher personality styles and can be categorized for study within the framework of the Schaeffer model. The four behavior style categories of this model arise in combinations of love-hostility and autonomy-control. Love is displayed as teacher warmth. Autonomy implies that the teacher fosters the child's management of his own learning. High love and low control characterize a democratic teacher; low love and low control, a laissez-faire teacher; high love and high control, an authoritarian teacher. Anastasiow found that teaching behavior was not susceptible to change when the curriculum objectives did not call forth behaviors which allowed for expression of the teacher's own personality.

Other studies examined the effects of these categories of behavior in the classroom. Teacher warmth is discussed as a category subsuming a variety of teaching behaviors. Soar (1965, 1968) found the optimal level of teacher criticism (less warmth) to be higher for reading skill learning than for either vocabulary learning or for increments in creative performance. He postulated that learning the skill of reading was a more literal task than vocabulary learning and that less teacher warmth in the early grades raises the tension level, thus facilitating the learning of less complex tasks. Those tasks requiring more abstraction showed greater advance with increasingly less teacher criticism (i.e., warmth). Soar's teachers did not show frequent occurrences of disciplinary action, but those who were relatively less warm than teachers of high warmth helped children to better attain reading skills. He did not have any teachers in his study who displayed high criticism tallies. Harris, Morrison, Serwer, and Gold (1968) found that teachers who used numerous disciplinary statements got poor results from their students by third grade for skill learning and reading achievement.

The studies of both Chall and Feldmann (1966) and Wallen (1966) found tallies of high warmth in teacher classroom interaction to impede constructive student behaviors in the first grade. Children did not achieve as well with such teachers; also, they did not like school and their teachers. According to Anastasiow's (1969) study, such teachers would display a benevolent controlling (or possibly an authoritarian) teaching style. High praise is personal rather than objective, just as high criticism is. Perhaps this suggests to the child that he will be loved only if he performs in the way the teacher likes rather than according to his own judgment of what is right. He values

his performance on the basis of teacher reaction, not on the basis of respect for his own judgment.

Brophy and Good (1970) found teachers to be more objective (low on criticism and praise) to girls and more evaluative (critical and praising) to boys—a behavioral orientation which appears to reflect the teacher's own need-value structure. Brophy and Good also explored the effects of teacher expectations on children's performance. They found that teachers gave more autonomy to those children they perceived as high achieving and were more directive to children perceived as low achieving. Wallen (1966) also found children achieving less with more controlling teachers, whereas Soar (1968) reported beginning reading skills being enhanced by more direct teaching. Soar did find an optimal point in his data where different aspects of reading were learned more effectively with higher or lower amounts of teacher control. Soar saw teachers as varying their behavior according to the nature of the learning task, particularly in the autonomy-control dimension. He suggested that teachers should always be relatively non-critical, that is, warm.

In many of the preceding studies, categories of teacher behaviors were observed as they occurred in the classroom or in relation to their effects on children. The investigators did not look for the source of these behaviors or discuss how they might be changed. Anastasiow (1969) viewed these behavior variables as reflections of the personality of the teacher. He concluded that any one teacher displayed a certain range of behaviors and that only limited shifts in these behaviors were possible. He cautioned against expecting all teachers to be able to display the necessary behaviors which are crucial to certain curricula, especially where process goals are as important as literal content or specific knowledge goals. Efforts to shift the range of behaviors characteristic of authoritarian teachers (high hostility and high control) to those characteristic of democratic teachers (low hostility and low control) met with little success in their study. Such efforts for change resulted in high stress and maladaptive responses from the teachers. However, the evidence of many studies discussed previously indicates that these investigators who instructed in method prescriptions helped most teachers to display an appropriate range of these behaviors in the classroom.

Teacher Behavior as a Reflection of How Teachers Perceive Children's Abilities

Brophy and Good (1970) studied how teachers displayed differential expectations of children they perceived as high or low achieving. The children in this study had been assigned to nine classes accord-

ing to objective measures of achievement and ability; therefore, the children were in fairly homogeneous classes. Yet teachers placed them into ability groups according to their opinions of each child's potential achievement. Browne (1971) also found that teachers placed children into low, medium, and high ability groups on the basis of little objective evidence. Her study supports Brophy and Good's findings that teachers provided different response opportunities for high and low groups according to their perception of their students' abilities. For example, high ability children were allowed to make open answers, applying divergent and reflective independent thought. Low ability children had to be specific and literal in response, providing objective, "right" answers. Therefore, low ability children were subject to more teacher correction.

An investigation of those characteristics of children which evoke certain behaviors from teachers might be very enlightening, as would research designed to explore how children are different. In all of the studies described in this paper, it is difficult to detect which behaviors or perhaps physical characteristics are identified by teachers as individual differences or as contributing to low or high ability. The findings of some studies support the view that it is non-competence based. Chall and Feldmann (1966) stated that where teachers paid attention to individual differences children did not achieve as well. Those individual differences must not be ones the teacher prefers when selecting children for high ability groups. Such differences for grouping, in fact, led to higher achievement. It seems there are individual differences which, when attended to, do in fact lead to lowered achievement as in the teacher's treatment of those placed in lower ability groups. Therefore, visible differences among children would be important to discover and study. Even if teachers did not group children, they would probably still behave toward them in relation to their expectations. Characteristics teachers consider indicative of lower level ability may prove to be important dimensions of complex achievement. Such characteristics do not apparently reflect child competence as much as what appears to be teacher preference.

Some Additional Observations

The focus of teaching as discussed in the studies included in this report is the overt, observable manifestation of certain categories of behavior. Investigators assigned specific teaching behaviors to categories not according to the intent of the actor, but to the way they were received, that is, how the student would perceive them. Any attempt to influence teaching behaviors must help teachers take account of the student as receiver. Teachers should be aware of the

reception categories used by the child to understand the implications of his or her acts. The teacher must initiate only those behaviors which the child can receive.

The concepts of Gestalt-Field theorists on figure ground occurrences and relationships provide us with a useful framework from which to study the above perspectives on classroom events. According to Gestalt theory, any complex situation which displays organization and relatedness of its parts provides a ground within which sub-wholes may be discovered and analyzed. One may study the whole situation or any of its patterned parts, that is, sub-wholes.

The instruments used for the various studies were selected by the investigators to describe and analyze the kind of figure they deemed significant on the ground of the classroom situation. For the most part, teacher behavior in the classroom was studied. Child behavior, when it was studied, occurred predominantly in relation to teachers only, not in relation to other children. Some investigators (Wallen, 1966; Kendrick and Bennett, 1966; Morrison, 1968) hinted at the possibility of the child's behaving as the initiator of the action in the classroom and occasionally even as an interactor with teachers and classmates.

The figures perceptible in the classroom situation for all of these investigators relate mainly to verbal interaction. Browne (1971) stated that an assumption of the Flanders model is that a teacher's verbal behavior provides an adequate sample of her total behavior. It must be assumed that these investigators see learning and teaching as occurring predominantly through verbal behavior. Yet, it is possible to conceive of children learning in a classroom with a mute teacher. Pursuing such a notion might open up whole avenues for helping children learn in an organized and patterned reading environment planned for children to be active in their learning. Possibly, many of the instruments used in the studies to date would not be adequate for studying the interaction of such a classroom or the discernible meaningful sub-wholes or figures within it. Children when first learning to read are only beginning to be pre-operational in their thought and still find most of their mental activity in the central correlates of direct, immediate, and sensorimotor action—not in verbal behavior.

These kinds of investigations are constraining forces on our perception of teacher behaviors because they report on the figure or sub-whole that they have selected from the classroom situation. Teachers perceive a figure of learning-to-read potential in children. We have little information about the observable data of these perceptions. Other researchers might see different figures within the same situation and certainly a change in the situation would result in a different

emergent figure. Finally, are we preventing change in classroom teaching behaviors by introducing change only according to what we study?

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Teaching Behaviors in Spelling Instruction: Report of the Literature Search

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In order to place the preponderance of current spelling research in a common perspective, I would like to review briefly some of the underlying historical reasons that have served to determine both the nature and the extent of such studies. In doing so, it is my aim to provide a context which helps to account for the dearth of spelling research that meets the criteria of the Cooperative Research Committee's search into the literature to identify effective teaching behaviors in the language arts.

Spelling instruction has a long-standing tradition in the American school curriculum. Since colonial days, the task of mastering English spelling has been a formal, often formidable, part of the child's educational environment. Obviously, an ability to spell correctly has consequences for accuracy in written communication; it is in this respect alone that much of the justification for the teaching of spelling has been claimed.

But there are also other less obvious motives for the teaching of spelling—motives with social and psychological roots, that continue to persist as reasons for why and how this subject is taught. Correct spelling, for example, is also commonly regarded as one indication of social status. Poor (or careless) spellers often are stigmatized both in and out of school. Indeed, social norms which undergird demands for good spelling are one of the principal reasons for the place of spelling instruction in the general school curriculum.

Another motive for spelling instruction rests upon an assumption that, except for occasional persons who are "naturally gifted" spellers, learning to spell is a difficult and time-consuming exercise because English orthography is fundamentally an erratic and irrational system of writing. In short, learning to spell is *hard work*, necessitating drill and memory activities to ensure mastery. Drawing in part from nineteenth century faculty psychology, the seeming fact that learning to spell is hard work was even regarded as having its own rewards, since the drudgery of memorizing spelling words would ostensibly strengthen the general memory capabilities of the learner. The time-honored "spelling bee" and "spell-down" were created to foster memory and not necessarily to provide enjoyment in learning to spell.

Because of these two related beliefs that English writing is illogical

and that spelling is difficult to learn, the majority of investigations into spelling instruction have generally centered on seeking more effective methods of teaching, some curriculum reorganization, and, to a small extent, learner differences. With the onset of the scientific movement in education around the turn of the century, considerable interest was also generated in determining the functional vocabularies of writers, both children and adults, with the objective of reducing the memory task to the learner to only those words that would be useful for him to know.

Thus, the research focus of spelling up to the present time has principally involved an examination of methodological variables. In a fairly comprehensive review and critique of spelling research to the mid-1960s, Sherwin (1969) categorized some 200-plus selected studies in terms of (1) the role of rules in instruction; (2) the merits of focusing on "hard spots" in words; (3) syllabication as a spelling aid; (4) grouping words around some common characteristic (e.g., homonyms); (5) the "list" method versus the "context" method (parenthetically, it is interesting to note that this issue has recently been raised again as a major spelling "problem"; see Wallace, 1972); (6) the "test-study" method versus the "study-test" method; (7) the effects of games, flashcards, eye movements, and proofreading practice upon spelling achievement; (8) motivation in spelling achievement; and (9) individualizing instruction.

It has been only in the past few years, however, that investigations have been undertaken of the earlier mentioned premises about the orthography which have been implicit in the majority of spelling research. Generated out of linguistic theory, these studies have seriously strained conventional beliefs about the nature and function of the writing system (Hanna, et al., 1966; Venezky and Weir, 1967; Chomsky and Halle, 1968).

Yet, despite the implications these studies have for both the content and the method of spelling instruction, there continues to be a flow of reports of spelling research which could be categorized in much the same manner that Sherwin employed in his book. However, it is not our purpose here to survey the history of spelling research. This brief overview has been intended to illuminate the assumptions which have guided most such research and which, in large measure, still continue to do so.

As part of the NCRE Cooperative Research Project, a search was made of the spelling research literature published during the period 1966-1971 to locate studies in which were explicitly described teaching behaviors during spelling instruction. As others in this symposium have already indicated, the criteria employed in making this search

were stringent. When these criteria are coupled with the historical dimensions of spelling research, it is not surprising to find that the spelling studies reported during this period largely continue the heritage which I briefly outlined. The possibility that effective spelling instruction could be a function of teaching behavior, as specified in this search, was virtually unstudied.

Our search procedures were as follows: For the period November 1966 through December 1971, a detailed search was made of the major sources which might contain reports or listings of spelling research. These sources included the *Education Index*, the ERIC catalogs—*Research in Education* (RIE) and *Current Index to Journals in Education* (CIJE)—*Psychological Abstracts*, *The Review of Educational Research*, *Dissertation Abstracts*, AERA journals, NCTE research reviews, and the volumes *Mirrors and Behavior* and *The Classroom Interaction Newsletter*, for studies of teacher-pupil interaction during spelling instruction. A list of titles or other promising leads was compiled. Each such study or its abstract was read to ascertain the relevance of the research in respect to the criteria being used in the overall literature search. In no case was there recorded any evidence of the effects of teaching behavior in spelling instruction.

Obviously, there is a wealth of material on teaching behavior. But very little of this research appears to be directly concerned with the teaching of a particular subject. The studies that have been done are mainly concerned with pupil-teacher interactions, with subject matter viewed as just one vehicle through which this interaction may occur. There is clearly also a great amount of literature in which certain teaching behaviors are recommended, but in no instance were these recommendations grounded in empirical evidence.

A comprehensive understanding of spelling instruction must draw upon linguistic, psychological, and instructional theory, taking into account the nature of the writing system, the nature of the learner, and methodologies that are appropriate in light of both of these factors. To state that knowledge of a subject and of the student are basic ingredients in making educational decisions is to state the obvious. It is apparently less obvious that such decisions can be compromised by the consequences of teacher-pupil interactions, in that no evidence is available that serves to identify effective teaching behaviors in the teaching of spelling.

At the least, this literature search has revealed what appears to be a virtually untapped area for research. The effects of teaching behaviors upon pupil achievement in spelling is a dimension of the larger task of identifying effective teaching behaviors in the language arts that would seem to warrant careful study.

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Implications of Research Studies in the Teaching of Writing, 1966-1971

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A survey of the recent research in the teaching of writing shows that most studies have been concerned with the investigating methods or approaches. The researchers have compared and contrasted approaches to see which one would lead to better writing results. Often the results were inconclusive, but these studies have paved the way for further research to examine what the teacher does in connection with the various approaches. The question becomes, "Which approach combined with what teaching strategies or behaviors brings the greatest improvement in writing?"

The abundance of "approach" studies with only general descriptions given for the teaching behavior involved no doubt reflects the ease with which this kind of study can be done as contrasted to the difficulty of determining specific teacher behaviors in using a given approach. There is an obvious need for criteria or specific guidelines for analyzing teacher behaviors.

A few of the studies revealed promising leads for the setting up of further research in this area. Biberstine (1967) found that the better writing students in fourth grade tended to see their teachers as being easy-going, pleasant, kind, clear, friendly, and soft. Although he reports positive correlations between certain personal characteristics of teachers and students' achievement in composition, Biberstine makes no claim that there is a causal relationship. Still, his study of teacher characteristics gives clues as to the kinds of behavior that may affect writing results positively. It should be noted, too, that Biberstine used a modification of the Osgood Semantic Differential to obtain pupils' perceptions of their teachers' characteristics. His modification and use of the instrument as described opens an important avenue for the assessment of teacher behavior, that of using pupil ratings. Biberstine's study merits close further consideration.

A small study by Ujlaki (1968) was concerned with the use of children's writings as a basis for individualized instruction. The sample and study were so limited that the results cannot be generalized, but a major part of the instruction was conducted through individual conferences about personal writing. This seems to have important im-

plications for the teaching of writing. The conference is a big part of the individualized reading program; it stands to reason that the individual conference would also be important in a writing program. Ujlaki's use of the conference should be considered as an example of specific teacher behavior to be further examined.

Huntington (1969) investigated the effects of instructional variables on syntactic complexity and clarity in children's written composition and found that what the teacher does in the post-stimulus period of prewriting seems to have no effect on the actual writing. Huntington concluded that another important set of variables, that of oral discussion of content and oral planning for writing on the part of the children, should be studied. He suggested that it was possible that oral imitation and practice of his own, other students' and the teacher's responses to a particular stimulus for writing might carry over into the child's written composition.

A study by Beeker (1970) did subsequently investigate the effects of oral planning on composition. Beeker's findings showed that class discussions did not seem to result in improved writing. However, Beeker concluded that more paired-student activity should be introduced into the language program, for she found that verbalization of one's own ideas (on the part of the child) is more conducive to mature writing than is listening to others' ideas and that paired communication would give the individual child more talking time than would total class discussion. In a paired-student situation, the role of the teacher would change from that of discussion leader to that of facilitator of learning. Sometimes what the teacher does *not* do is as important as what the teacher does do.

After the researcher has analyzed what the teacher does or does not do, there needs to be some valid way of measuring results in terms of writing produced. Better measuring techniques and instruments are needed so that researchers will know how much "success" has occurred as a result of specific teaching strategies. Often in the past researchers have not really been measuring what they purported to be measuring, or they were using inadequate instruments. The quality of instruments used has varied greatly. Many, if not most, instruments are limited to measuring quantitative rather than qualitative aspects of writing.

Wiggins (1969), for example, used as his measure the number of simple sentences contained in the total number of sentences written on the assumption that the fewer simple sentences used, the more mature the writing would be. Wiggins' results were the opposite of what he expected, and he concluded, "Unfortunately, at this time there are no definitive answers or a consensus of what constitutes good writing" (p. 56).

Investigators need to make the effort to establish criteria for good writing and thus understand more about what they are trying to measure.

Hunt (1965) has provided a good foundation for other researchers by determining the T-unit to be a valid indicator of maturity in syntactic control. He refers to the shortest grammatically allowable sentences into which a composition can be segmented as T-units. This allows for complex and simple sentences but eliminates compound sentences. Subsequent researchers have built on Hunt's work and supported and extended the findings. Data now exist as to what to expect on the different grade levels. This index could be one important criterion reference for persons attempting to measure writing.

The art of writing involves much more than syntactic control, however. A few studies show promising instruments that can be used for more qualitative assessment. Duffy (1967) developed an instrument to measure creative poetry writing performance. It is an analytical scale describing seven elements of poetry. The elements investigated were theme, organization, solving the problem, stimulus perception, emotional depth, unusual relationships, and language. This kind of investigation goes far beyond mere word counts or structural analysis. Duffy's instrument was found valid for measuring semantic novelty and should be considered by those studying the writing of poetry. Another study, by Tway (1971), was concerned with the qualitative assessment of children's fiction writing. A Literary Rating Scale was devised and found valid for measuring maturity of fiction writing.

Biesbrock (1969) developed an instrument for measuring composition ability in young children (grades two and three). Since the writings of young children are usually short, there are few elements to measure, making it all the more difficult, and Biesbrock's work should provide clues in this area.

With careful measurement techniques, researchers will be able to properly assess amounts of improvement in writing as a result of various teaching strategies. It will remain, then, to coordinate research efforts so that the findings will have wider scope and broader implications for the elementary school program.

Some studies seem to suggest theoretical models. One promising source is a study done by Emerson (1969). The purposes of Emerson's study were to construct a theory of language that would develop from the works of Suzanne Langer and Marshall McLuhan and to develop criteria that could act as a guide in the selection of activities for the teaching of language arts.

The studies presented here are by no means inclusive but are reported because they indicate possible springboards to future study of

teacher behavior and written composition. I feel convinced that if the leads discussed here were to be followed, improved research would also follow.

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Plan for a Five-Phase Study of Teaching Effectiveness

As the Literature Search Committee immersed itself in the task of finding and reporting appropriate research literature, some tentative further steps toward the goal of identifying and describing teaching behaviors could be projected. Already completed or in progress were several studies using existing scales, adaptations of such scales, or entirely new ones (see "Evaluative Instruments and Pertinent Research," page 81). In addition to the foregoing, a working party of NCRE members (see page 96) wrote individual statements of their criteria of excellence in teaching the language arts. These statements were formulated so that objective assessment devices could be balanced against the views of language arts experts.

It has been part of the project design from the beginning that each phase should be worthwhile in and of itself as well as that it should contribute to subsequent phases of a long-term investigation. Thus the Literature Search Committee Report may serve as a stimulus for new research and as a guide for teacher education programs. So, too, may the Selective Bibliography Form and the Criteria of Excellence in Teaching the Language Arts.

Tentative Projection of the Phases of a Study of Teaching Effectiveness in Elementary Language Arts

- I. A literature search for reports of research giving sufficient detail to

Identify certain teaching behaviors or constellations of behavior
Differentiate teacher from teacher according to certain styles or patterns of behavior

Give data from which teaching styles can be identified by description of teacher-learner interaction

- II. Screen evaluative instruments and/or combine and/or extend and/or create new devices for gathering data about specific teaching acts

Criteria are needed for "successful" teaching to help select instruments with enough discriminating power to reveal data related to quality of teaching (For example, an item of observation might reveal affective reinforcement of a specific learning act: "Good, Jim, we could hear every word you said that time. Very clear! Thanks." Or an item of observation might offer cognitive reinforcement by the teacher's stating a variation of a pupil's response or asking him to give a different example of his idea.)

- III. Pilot projects and analysis of results, *if possible*, relating teaching behaviors to pupil achievement

Necessitates various achievement measures in addition to standardized tests

Necessitates definition of and criteria for success in language arts evaluations, for instance, in story telling as compared with dramatization or with teaching spelling

- IV. Major project

Selection of teacher populations, pupil populations, geographic areas, types of schools

Application of teacher evaluative instruments to classroom observations and to video and audio tapes of teaching episodes

- V. Analysis of data, writing of reports for profession and popularized treatment for public

(Each of the phases above has intrinsic value for NCRE and the field even if the overall project could not be completed.)

Criteria of Excellence in Teaching the Language Arts

Development of the Criteria

Eighteen nationally known leaders in the language arts wrote statements of their own criteria for excellence in the teaching of language arts in the elementary school at an NCRE meeting in Chicago, April 4, 1973. Though necessarily fragmentary because of lack of time, these statements revealed certain obvious and important emphases.

Offered many times was the idea that "good" teachers of the language arts are warmly supportive and encourage pupils to learn in many perceptible ways. A second major idea was that such teachers have some knowledge about language and how it is learned. Scrutiny of the many criteria in addition to the two aforementioned showed the need for categorizing them. Five categories emerged:

- I. Interactions with pupils applying knowledge of child development and individual differences
- II. Interactions with pupils applying knowledge of the language arts
- III. Interactions with pupils showing awareness of societal needs and values
- IV. Interactions with pupils showing maturity as a person and as a professional

V. Interactions with pupils demonstrating knowledge of the language arts

With some unavoidable and perhaps useful overlapping, this classification serves to illustrate areas of need as well as areas that have received consideration in teacher education. From the assembled statements written by the eighteen NCRE members, a dearth of specific knowledge about the teacher as a person and as a professional and consequently about teaching behaviors was apparent. The research literature, as reported some months later by the Literature Search Committee, appeared to support the criteria statements. Although no reported studies passed all the stringent requirements for inclusion in the bibliography—requirements having to do with specific details of teaching behaviors—certain reports did contribute peripherally to several of the emerging criteria.

As the steps of expanding and editing the initial statements of criteria went forward, the most perplexing questions continued to be those concerned with how to phrase and later to use the category of "teacher as a person and as a professional." Yet this area of differentiating behaviors of teachers constituted a central part of the larger charge to the Cooperative Research Committee, and hence, a central part of this investigation. It could be argued that many behaviors of the mature-person-competent-professional are basic to all teaching, not limited to the language arts, and that particulars of teaching behaviors included in this concept come dangerously close to being personality factors. Yet the abundant need for considering the personal-professional-maturity factor arises from at least four sources: (1) the concerns of experts, (2) the findings of influential differences from teacher to teacher within method in the First Grade Reading Studies, (3) pupils' perception of their teachers, and (4) the findings of a few researchers in the field of specific teaching behaviors in language arts instruction.

Purpose of the Criteria

Progress toward research in teaching behaviors is more likely if understanding is clear as to the potential use of the following criteria. The purpose for formulating the criteria is to help develop evaluative instruments which identify and describe teaching behaviors in the language arts. The criteria held to be important by experts should guide the creation of such instruments. Evaluation of specific teaching behaviors as related to pupil learning offers formidable difficulties. Confusion of cause-and-effect relationships with coincidental

conditions must be avoided. Danger that narrowly conceived and easily tested learnings might become the major content of language arts curricula must likewise be avoided. Hence, the subjective, affective, and aesthetic values and the long-term goals implied and expressed by the eighteen language arts specialists are indeed significant.

The statements have been extended and edited and then reconsidered twice by the persons who were first asked to write their beliefs about excellence in language arts teaching. Such a collection of criteria constitutes a useful potential for guidance. However, it is not a definitive statement of the views of the total NCRE membership. Reservations about precise meanings and phraseology exist even among the eighteen persons responsible for the criteria. Therefore, they should be considered as a tentative working nucleus and modified as needed by persons using them for different purposes.

Criteria of Excellence in Teaching the Language Arts

Category I Interactions with Pupils Applying Knowledge of Child Development and Individual Differences

Seeks to understand each learner's background—social, cultural, linguistic—in relation to established sequences of child development.

1. Respects immaturity, demonstrating concern for and personal interest in each child; treats pupils as competent children, not defective adults; helps children grow through maturational processes at their own pace.
2. Observes and reacts to children's responses in order to know them as individuals—what they need, what they can do, and what they are ready to learn.

3. Realizes that the varying behaviors of children express differing needs; accepts variant responses and channels disruptive activity positively whenever possible.
4. Knows that a pupil needs to be aware of himself as a successful learner, both as an individual functioning independently and as a cooperating member of a group.
5. Observes child's motor and perceptual abilities and plans curriculum experiences accordingly.

Category .II Interactions with Pupils Applying Knowledge of Teaching and Learning

Seeks to unify cognitive and affective learnings through action and reflection.

1. Differentiates between immediate and long-term growth of children in cognitive and affective learnings.
2. Fosters an inquiry approach to learning; emphasizes thinking rather than rote memory of facts and details; asks open-ended questions, involving children in problem situations.
3. Arranges many opportunities for appreciative and aesthetic learnings and emphasizes their values.
4. With the help of pupils identifies curricular goals and plans learning activities; provides for individuals and groups to make many decisions about their learning.
5. Analyzes learning activities so that readiness is realistically appraised; provides experiences to develop needed readiness; guides acquisition of new learnings; reinforces learnings as needed by individuals and groups.
6. Uses various approaches in appropriate ways to individualize many learning-teaching activities through multi-media, realia, teacher-made exercises, pupils helping each other, individual conferences, and small, flexible groupings.
7. Uses diagnostic techniques and classroom observation to help choose appropriate teaching-learning procedures; recognizes lack of validity of most standard tests for certain linguistic groups.

8. Evaluates learnings by choosing from a variety of suitable techniques, both formal and informal; uses such evaluations to help each child develop a positive self-image.
9. Adjusts procedures to individual variations in rate and kinds of growth.
10. Keeps appropriate records for each child: learnings attained and those needed, changes of interests, and attitudes toward self, peers, and adults; test scores.
11. Seeks aid of different specialists for individuals in need of special help, but avoids excessive number to whom a child needs to relate.

Category III Interactions with Pupils Showing Awareness of Societal Needs and Values

Acts upon knowledge that communication springs from, is supported by, and contributes to social interaction; utilizes children's language to capitalize on such interaction.

1. Makes language learning in school functional and natural so that children see its relation to life needs; provides experiences in genuine communication both in the classroom and in the community to help children become selective, flexible readers, writers, speakers, and listeners.
2. Develops understanding of and compassion toward others as part of language attitudes and knowledge; demonstrates awareness that dialects express inherent values of different cultures; builds respect for language of peers, teachers, administrators, parents, and others in school and community.
3. Engages in reading and writing, and stimulates other adults to make such activities visible to children.
4. Leads children toward clarity and constructive use of language in making decisions.
5. Provides opportunities at appropriate times for children who need to add "standard dialect" to their repertoire of dialects.
6. Helps children learn some of the language conventions and community expectations for literate behavior.

Category IV Interactions with Pupils Showing Maturity as a Person and as a Professional

Sees self as guide, listener, questioner, reactor, and, in general, as facilitator of language learning.

1. Demonstrates enough personal-professional security through spontaneous use of language to create rapport with children rather than defensiveness about themselves and their language.
2. Shows concern for making himself (herself) understood by pupils and others.
3. Demonstrates that positive expectations are likely to elicit positive results in both oral and written language.
4. Gives visible evidence of support to children through varied expressions of approval; shows neutral or negative reactions when essential.
5. Does not feel threatened by child's use of "four-letter words" for aggressive purposes or because of inadequate vocabulary, but "negotiates" with children concerning appropriate language for different social contexts.
6. Listens to each child attentively, giving needed verbal support in fortifying or changing feelings about a personal or social conflict.
7. Listens to each child attentively and helps with a need for clarification or reinforces child's ideas and their expression.
8. Takes pride in children's linguistic progress and lets them know it.
9. Encourages pupils' initiative and responsibility for their own language learning rather than overdependence upon the teacher.
10. Continues to study: individuals and their languages, their needs and strengths, the developmental sequences of growth, the teaching-learning processes.

Category V Interaction with Pupils Demonstrating Knowledge of the Language Arts

Builds language on experience and experience on language; fosters genuine, purposeful, enjoyable communication among pupils and with others; shows appreciation for pupils' uniqueness and growth in the use of language.

Language—Basic Concepts

1. Is knowledgeable about ways of assessing oral language development and those language deviations that make a difference to communication, for example, listening and reading comprehension.
2. Applies psycho-socio-linguistic principles to all facets of the language arts.
3. Knows about and respects the variety of dialects in the locality as well as the people who speak those dialects.
4. Understands the roles of various dialects and the problems of communication and attitude involved.
5. Relates language learning to the entire curriculum.
6. Demonstrates and develops an appreciation for the values of language in thinking and feeling.
7. Fosters pupils' sensitivity to and appreciation for the beauty of language.

Listening

1. Helps learners focus attention on the meaning of a message; demonstrates use of phonological, syntactic, and semantic clues rather than teaching abstractions about them.
2. Develops appreciation for the many kinds of listening responses and for the complexity of meaningful listening.
3. Assists pupils in developing special skills needed for the variety of listening situations in our technological society.
4. Helps individuals evaluate and use what is heard in solving problems and coping with realistic situations.

5. Honestly listens to what pupils have to say and demonstrates reception of the messages.
6. Provides opportunities to be sure that what the speaker has said is understood by the listeners—peers, teachers, and others.
7. Opens up experiences in listening to and appreciating the diverse language styles used by peers as well as adults.
8. Attends to the difficulties involved in following oral directions by rephrasing, repeating, explaining, providing examples when necessary; helps individuals learn these techniques for clarifying their messages to others.
9. Places emphasis on purposes for listening strategies appropriate to the solving of particular problems; seeks and guides transfer to many in-school and out-of-school activities.
10. Assists children toward conscious and selective listening and non-listening when the situation warrants.

Speaking

1. Creates a class climate of respect for each individual's speech as unique and valuable; provides opportunity for pupil talk to exceed teacher talk by a substantial amount of time.
2. Lifts to consciousness the original, unique language used spontaneously by children and adults both for its communication value and for its contribution to creative expression.
3. Reinforces child's natural style of talking, helping him avoid artificial, stilted, imitative expression.
4. Develops appreciation for oral language—listening as well as speaking—in pupils' own lives and in the affairs of people everywhere.
5. Accepts speech within the dialect framework of the speaker as well as hybrid usages which demonstrate that the learner is accepting alternative usages from another dialect.
6. Facilitates acquisition of standard American English through exposure to literature and much free oral response to it; uses other positive techniques, such as brief sentence repetition practice when appropriate, without denigrating speech forms used by the child and his family.
7. Helps pupils plan and present oral communications in different ways for different social situations and different audiences.

8. Assists pupils in identifying kinds of problems to be alert to in oral presentations and to apply techniques for clarifying confusion when it occurs.
9. Uses many kinds of stimuli for informal conversation, formal talks, explanations, descriptions, role-playing, mime, plays, group discussions, structured panels.
10. Provides opportunities for pupils to learn to use contemporary media for central as well as supporting presentations—tapes, discs, audio-visual devices; develops criteria for and encourages constructive and critical evaluation of media productions.

Reading

1. Considers reading an act of searching for the author's message; recognizes that reading does not take place unless understanding takes place.
2. In addition, considers reading a dialogue between the author and the reader in which the reader interacts with the author, interprets what the author says, evaluates the message, and uses, stores, or even discards the information and ideas obtained.
3. Recognizes that each child brings a somewhat different cultural, social, emotional, intellectual, and language background to reading and uses that knowledge in the teaching-learning situation.
4. Evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of pupils' language development and relates the knowledge gained to their reading progress.
5. Evaluates individual needs in the skills of reading and continually plans suitable instruction.
6. Helps pupils assess their own reading achievement.
7. Uses oral reading as one evaluation technique without constant interference from the teacher and without an audience.
8. Involves children in reading for a multitude of purposes in a variety of materials.
9. Selects from many organizational plans according to purpose(s) of instruction: flexible groupings, individual pupils, pupil teams, whole class.
10. Has children read orally in purposeful audience situations, with material well-prepared in advance, so as to enhance the experience of the listener.

11. Permits children to read orally in their own dialects without correction unless the message is unclear to the listeners; works toward long-term development of reading orally in standard English.
12. Often reads to pupils, involving and encouraging their responses and their interactions.
13. Serves as an adult model by sharing some of his or her reading interests and experiences with children.
14. Uses appropriate opportunities to stimulate wide reading leading to lifetime reading habits.

Literature

1. Selects literature to read to children and helps them select literature for themselves within their levels of conceptual maturity and language sophistication.
2. Reads appropriate literature to children revealing his or her own satisfaction in the experience without forcing agreement with adult tastes and interpretations.
3. Exposes children to varied models of literary merit and discusses qualities of writing with them without extensive analysis; uses open-ended as well as specific questions to focus attention on style, characterization, plot, setting, point-of-view, theme.
4. Provides much unstructured exploration of literature and exchange of responses based upon knowledge that this free experience leads to favorable reading attitudes and ability to read critically and creatively.
5. Keeps rotating classroom library collection readily accessible to pupils; arranges for class and informal individual use of school library and visits to community library.
6. Suggests books of both prose and verse to individuals and groups appropriate to their personal interests as well as to topics in various curriculum areas.
7. Arranges for deepening and intensifying literary experience through free conversation, discussions, dramatics, graphic arts, and written expression.

Written Composition

1. Encourages each child as a writer whose individual and personal expression is worthy of respect.

2. Values ideas, originality, precision, and vividness of language above technical competence of spelling, sentence form, and mechanics.
3. Provides for children's sharing their stories and verse as a valid and essential part of the communication program; often reads aloud the writing of those children whose oral reading is ineffective.
4. Involves children in genuine communication through practical, informational writing and sees that such writing is shared through oral reading and visual display.
5. Helps children edit work that is to be visually shared in order to facilitate accurate reading and to build pride in correct form.
6. Encourages constructive peer criticism; channels critical evaluation toward finding meaning and clarity.
7. Helps children constructively evaluate their own writing, avoiding risk of destructive self-consciousness.
8. Fosters peer enjoyment of narrative imaginative writing, both prose and verse, for its originality, honesty, and uniqueness.
9. Helps child acquire some of the vocabulary needed to discuss or improve his or her writing through individual conferences; uses common needs as basis for group or class teaching.
10. Shares his writing experience with children on occasion.

Spelling and Handwriting—Skills Related to Writing

1. Demonstrates need for correct spelling in writing for purposeful communication, not only for tests; uses test correction as teaching-learning experience.
2. Organizes spelling instruction around facts of individual spelling needs.
3. Emphasizes, through economical study techniques, mastery of high frequency words rather than words rarely used.
4. Provides various study techniques and encourages pupils' experimenting so as to find dependable methods of achieving success.
5. Fosters pride in achievement of individual goals of independence and use of checking procedures.
6. Sees that pupils develop habits of proofreading as part of "spelling conscience" for writing that is to be read by others.

7. Helps children begin to understand the writing system by using language clues and information about sound-symbol relationships rather than merely memorizing abstractions.
8. Immediately provides the spelling of words needed by children as they write in order to avoid loss of ideas.
9. Develops independence in spelling-for-writing by use of word banks in primary grades, and by use of alphabetized individual lists of needed words in middle grades.
10. Teaches use of dictionary to check spelling when children are mature enough to project variant spellings and to find them quickly in the dictionary; is aware of developmental sequence of such skills.
11. Helps pupils realize necessity of legible handwriting in written communication.
12. Provides appropriate practice for specific handwriting problems; demonstrates cognizance of psycho-physical act of handwriting.

Integration of Language Arts

1. Plans for interaction of reading, writing, listening, and speaking and relates them to cognitive and affective learnings.
2. Develops concepts through use of all the language arts, drawing upon first-hand experience and the media.
3. Involves children in activities that show the relationship of simultaneous use of the language arts—viewing and listening (television), writing and listening (questions and notes after a speaker or interview), reading and dramatizing; demonstrates the unique contribution of each when used separately and together.
4. Provides isolated practice in needed skills in each of the language arts but makes sure that they are applied in meaningful, purposeful situations throughout the total school curriculum.

Evaluative Instruments and Pertinent Research

Teaching behaviors cannot be separated from the teacher as a whole functioning person except for purposes of analysis and study. The integrity of the individual, whether pupil or teacher, is a basic assumption. But teaching is more than personality projection, even of "the whole teacher." In his report on research peripheral to teaching behaviors, Emans points out that "to focus on discovering behaviors of teachers in classrooms seems a logical beginning, for teachers do not communicate at an intuitive level but through their behaviors. Children receive perceptible signals" (page 50).

Two errors must be avoided in the whole domain of studying teaching and learning: (1) that of perceiving teaching either in narrowly dictated specific and entirely overt performances, and (2) that of seeing teaching as the influence of personality in vague global terms. The following report on current studies of teaching behaviors using presently available instruments points up approaches to this multi-faceted problem.

*Richard Frizzi and M. Cecile Forte**

As the literature search demonstrated, few studies of language arts activities have focused on specific teaching behaviors and specific learning behaviors in relation to student achievement. In reading, however, a limited number have been concerned with such dimensions of teaching effectiveness. Although their methodology, procedures, and findings were somewhat diverse, they all explored one of the central questions of the NCRE concern: "What characteristics distinguish the teaching behaviors of the successful teacher from those of the less successful one?"

In the CRAFT Studies by Harris, Serwer, and Gold (1966) and Harris, Morrison, Serwer, and Gold (1968) the dimension of the teacher's approving and disapproving statements on student achievement was discussed. The studies included forty-eight first grade teachers as the first year sample and thirty-eight second grade teachers in the follow-up second year of observations. The achievement dimension was measured through the use of the Stanford Achievement Test at the end of first grade and with the Metropolitan Achievement Test at the end of second grade. Both studies were conducted in New York City schools with a student population categorized as disadvantaged. In both studies strong disapproval and criticism were significant negative correlates with disadvantaged children's learning to read. However, the studies showed nonsignificant results when praise was used as a motivation to learning.

Soar (1967, pp. 243-250) examined growth in reading comprehension and vocabulary as measured by the Iowa Achievement Test. The teacher variables studied were "... the degree of control exercised by the teacher, and the degree of warmth or supportiveness of the emotional climate" (p. 245). On the basis of observation and analysis of behavior in a number of classrooms, four classes were selected as representing the extreme combinations of conditions: direct control, high hostility; direct control, low hostility; indirect control, high hostility; indirect control, low hostility. Soar hypothesized that both reading comprehension and vocabulary would improve under conditions of indirect control and an atmosphere of low hostility. The hypothesis was not upheld, for, although the results were significant in the case

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of vocabulary development, they were not significant in the case of reading comprehension.

Chall and Feldmann (1966) examined the teacher as a modifier of a reading method and examined the notion that a teacher's implementation of a particular method might be as important a factor in the reading achievement of pupils as the method itself. The investigators examined fourteen teachers and their twelve classes (two teachers were replacements) in socially disadvantaged neighborhoods in New York City over a one-year period. They found that, with the use of an eclectic basal reader approach at the first grade level, teachers did vary in their implementation of the method and that "the observed practices were not related to those the teachers themselves report." The study incorporated special instruments to ascertain teacher stated approach and characteristics of their classroom practices and procedures. The achievement dimension was measured by the Stanford Achievement Test. The investigators also found that four teacher characteristics had a significant positive relationship to student achievement: teacher competence, a thinking approach to learning, appropriateness of the level of difficulty of the reading lessons, and a sound-symbol approach to teaching reading. Amount of approval or disapproval given during the lesson was not significantly related to achievement.

Before and during the years the studies above were being conducted, other investigators were developing and experimenting with observation scales which might be used to observe pupil-teacher interactions more systematically. Several of these scales seem to hold some promise for studies of language arts activities.

Withall's Social-Emotional Climate Index was used in a study of teaching effectiveness in relation to reading (Silberman, 1956). The Index uses seven categories to describe both the cognitive and affective verbal behavior of teachers: (1) learner supportive, (2) acceptant or clarifying, (3) problem structuring, (4) neutral, (5) directive, (6) reproving, disapproving, disparaging, and (7) teacher supportive. Another pioneering instrument, the Observation Schedule and Record (OScAR), developed by Medley and Mitzel (1958), has been used in other curriculum areas but not specifically with language arts activities. Both cognitive and affective teacher-pupil verbal behaviors are evaluated. Both instruments require one coder and can be used live or to analyze audio or video taped classroom activities.

Another possible tool not yet used with language arts lessons is a thirteen-category system developed by Smith and Meux (1968) based on "logical operations" believed to be present in teaching behavior during content area lessons. These operations are categorized

as: defining, describing, designating, stating, reporting, substituting, evaluating, opining, classifying, comparing and contrasting, conditional inferring, explaining, and directing and managing the classroom. The categories were developed to analyze how teachers and pupils process content. The system requires two teams of coders, a tape operator, a tape recorder, and a tapescript.

The Flanders System of Interaction Analysis, perhaps the best known of the observation scales, was used in an exploratory study by Furst and Amidon (1965) and has since been used widely. The scale consists of ten categories of interaction, seven devoted to teacher talk (indirect and direct) and three devoted to student talk.

Frizzi (1972) video-taped a sample of twenty-two first grade teacher-student groups during instruction in phoneme-grapheme correspondence of the letter *p*. The verbal behavior was analyzed through the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Frizzi found that no significant relationship existed between the percentage of students in the instructional groups who mastered the lesson objective and the interaction analysis groupings identified as percentage of teacher talk, percentage of student talk, I/D ratio (indirect to direct behavior), and content cross ratio. Similarly, no significant relationship was found between teacher characteristics of total years of experience, years of teaching within the district, and academic degree status. Significant correlations were found between student mastery and revised I/D ratio (omission of asking and answering questions), teacher knowledge of reading content and techniques, and a teacher tendency to be more friendly, understanding, businesslike, systematic, stimulating, and imaginative.

Frizzi also found that no significant relationship existed between individual student mastery scores and the number of teacher-student verbal contacts, percentage of teacher questions, and percentage of teacher talk. Significant correlations were found between individual student mastery scores and I/D ratio and revised I/D ratio. When the factors of readiness and IQ were partialled, the correlations appeared independent of IQ but not independent of the influence of readiness.

The interaction analysis matrices used by Frizzi demonstrated that teacher talk constituted approximately 66 percent of the total tallies recorded during the episodes, student talk accounted for 24 percent, and silence and confusion accounted for the remaining 10 percent. Roughly 50 percent of the behavior focused on the lesson content. An I/D ratio of .84 indicated a teacher tendency to be more direct than indirect in teaching, with a similar direct pattern (revised I/D ratio of .53) used for motivation and control. The major components

of teacher talk were questioning, lecturing, and directives. Student talk was primarily response to teacher questions or directives.

According to Frizzi's findings, the differences in behavior of the teachers identified as most effective and least effective showed that the most effective: (1) spent more time accepting students' feelings and accepting or using students' ideas, (2) generated more statements of praise and encouragement, (3) tended to lecture and give directives less, (4) showed less of a tendency to use criticism, and (5) permitted less student unsolicited talk. The least effective teachers were found to be twice as direct in teaching the lessons (I/D ratio of .58 versus .95) and twice as direct in their motivation and control of the students during the recorded episodes (revised I/D ratio of .29 versus .63). Teacher knowledge of reading was higher for the most effective group as was the tendency to be more friendly, understanding, businesslike, systematic, stimulating, and imaginative.

Frizzi also used Ryans' Classroom Observation Record to assess classroom climate. The twenty-two categories and the descriptors in the Record relate to both verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Used along with the Flanders System, it provided viable information about the affective dimension of the classroom behavior of both teachers and pupils. Because it seems to measure classroom climate and because of its nonverbal component, the Record appears worthy of further exploration in assessing teaching effectiveness in the language arts.

Browne (1971) observed and recorded the student-teacher interaction in five first grade classes and four classes at the third grade level, all of which were using basal reader materials. The data were categorized according to the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis and the investigator-constructed observational system called Focused Interaction Episode in Reading (FIER). A pilot study was also conducted using the same data with a third derived system called the Observational System for the Analysis of Primary Reading Lessons.

Browne's findings, categorized according to the Flanders System, showed that there were significant differences in teaching behavior in the instruction of low, average, and high groups. In all groups at both the first and third grade levels, the teachers talked more than 50 percent of the time with a range of 37.5 to 66.4 percent. Student talk constituted about 30 percent of the verbal interaction, but a large percentage of the pupil verbal behavior involved reading aloud.

Browne's Observational System for the Analysis of Primary Reading Lessons has sixteen categories: four involving teacher solicitations in specific aspects of reading instruction; five involving teacher-centered or reactive (teacher) behavior; six involving pupil behavior; and one involving silence and confusion. The System assesses both

affective and cognitive behavior and requires the use of coders and audiovisual taping. At present, it has been used only in Browne's doctoral study with primary reading groups. This instrument should be utilized in future research, as it appears to provide additional information about teacher-pupil interaction specific to reading instruction episodes, and it may be useful in analyzing other language arts activities.

In fact, at this time, 1973, M. Cecile Forte, a doctoral student at Hofstra University, is planning to utilize the Browne System as a tool for observing teacher-pupil interaction in a reading comprehension lesson at the elementary level.

Evangelina Angelo, another doctoral student at Hofstra, is in the process of searching for an observation tool and is considering adapting one for her own purposes in the observation of language cues used by the teacher which tend to "turn learners on" and "turn learners off." Barry Schoenholz, also a Hofstra doctoral candidate, is planning a study for the junior high school, examining the teaching of vocabulary across the various content areas. He plans to use a rather large sample. This might prove to be a fruitful study since most of the studies in this area have dealt with small samples.

NCRE encourages graduate students and faculty members across the country to conduct pilot studies particularly looking at the student-teacher interaction during instruction not only in reading but also in other language arts activities. It is hoped that over a period of the next five years or so a number of pilot studies will provide additional insights and will form the foundation for a large well-structured national study. If the pilot studies prove viable and NCRE can design a large study across the nation, with some financial assistance from either government or private sources, we may have found one way of learning a little more about teaching effectiveness in the language arts.

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A Forward Look

Examination of the foregoing criteria and of the reports on research in teaching behaviors brings to light a larger view of language arts teaching than merely pupils' achievement of functional literacy, essential as that is. Higher orders of language learning and use are central. Clarification and continuing development of thought processes and of aesthetic response to and use of language are involved. So, too, are critical reaction to listening and reading, as well as creative responses to these essentially "intake" processes. Indeed, active outreach in reading and listening is postulated, not passive intake or imprinting. The relation of graphic symbol interpretation to comprehension of abstract symbols in teaching and learning, along with the potency of television, radio, and other electronic media, as well as its relation to realia and first-hand experience, is basic to this view of language.

The fact that children live in a world of language outside of school, that they communicate effectively at home and elsewhere in dialects indigenous to their culture and valued by their respective groups—these and other views of children and their language are inherent in the criteria and in the research reports. So, too, is a corollary that teaching, to be maximally effective, must increase pupils' varied uses of language in many different social settings.

The importance of the self-concept is not limited to language

learning, but it is central to language development both as cause and as effect. The pupil whose image of himself is positive and confident—other conditions being equal—learns new language skills with relative ease; conversely, enlarged language skill fortifies a positive self-concept. Thus, a pupil's freedom in language use is related to his growing strengths in the arts of language and is reciprocally related to the personal-professional maturity of the teacher who is not threatened by children's variant uses of language.

Testing these relationships and others basic to and expressed in the criteria presents overwhelming difficulties. Yet a few landmarks show the way. In addition to the few studies directly aimed at studying teaching behaviors in the language arts, investigation in other curriculum areas has begun. Experimentation continues with new measures of classroom learning geared to the analysis of video tape, audio tape, and written records.

The *raison d'être* for the formulation of criteria, as has been stated, is to guide the adaptation and/or creation of instruments for identifying and studying teaching behaviors. Nevertheless, two other potential values appear. One is their use in planning teacher education programs. Experience in courses and beyond courses needs to be provided and assessed in relation to a framework of criteria germane to classroom interactions with children. In addition, such an organization of criteria could help teacher candidates assess both themselves and their programs.

A second potential service is that the printed display of criteria in five categories offers powerful testimony to the complexity of teaching the language arts. No one teacher can possibly demonstrate all of them at a high level of artistry and power. Such an individual would be a paragon beyond description! But the integration of knowledge and action, of intellect and emotion, of social and cognitive skills inherent in teaching shows through as a tremendous complex of abilities. Continued study of this constellation of higher order operations is in need of thoughtful support. Involving the entire visible array of criteria of excellence is essential in a comprehensive plan for further pilot studies and for sharpening the foci for related broad-scale investigations. Continued refining of research plans is the *sine qua non* for discovering, identifying, and describing at least some of the behaviors essential to effective teaching in the language arts.

Appendixes

NCRE Committee on Cooperative Research Selective Bibliography Form: Teaching Behaviors in the Language Arts

Name of bibliographer _____

Date _____ Hours spent _____

REFERENCE (Give complete citation; title and subtitle; library call number if given):

I. Is this a test of a hypothesis? (experimental, quasi-experimental, or demonstration) YES _____ NO _____
or

II. Is this an answer to an empirical question? (survey, description, analysis, exploratory question, or review of literature) YES _____ NO _____

Now complete search on following pages before answering III-VI below.

III. (Answer to question I is YES) The hypothesis is supported by the investigator's conclusion(s)? Not supported _____ Qualified support _____
Supported _____

If several hypotheses are stated, give conclusions separately.

IV. (Answer to questions I and II is YES) Were procedures for securing the data Appropriate _____ Inappropriate _____

V. (Answer to question I or II is YES) Was the data analysis Appropriate _____ Inappropriate _____

VI. Comments:

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Levels	Age	Sex	Ethnicity
Pre-K _____	4 _____	Male _____	White _____
1 _____	5 _____	Female _____	Black _____
2 _____	6 _____	M and F _____	Indian Tribe _____
3 _____	7 _____	No Info _____	Cuban _____
4 _____	8 _____	Other _____	Puerto Rican _____
5 _____	9 _____		Mexican American _____
6 _____	10 _____	SES _____	Oriental: _____
7 _____	11 _____	Lower _____	Japanese _____
8 _____	12 _____	LL ML UL _____	Chinese _____
9 _____	13 _____	Middle _____	Other _____
10 _____	14 _____	LM MM UM _____	_____
11 _____	15 _____	Upper _____	
12 _____	16 _____	LU ML UU _____	
Young _____	17 _____		Mother Tongue _____
Adult _____	18-25 _____	Name of _____	Second Language _____
18-25 _____	25+ _____	scale: _____	_____
Adult _____		Description _____	No Info _____
25+ _____		of scale: _____	_____
	However researcher describes: _____		

			Geographic Area _____
			However researcher describes _____

All Measures of Learner Potential

However researcher describes:

Measure (A) _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Measure (B) _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Measure (C) _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Special population:

E.H. _____

E.M.R. _____

Deaf _____

Blind _____

Other _____

Define: _____

Ability level of subjects:

Low _____ Average _____ High _____

Other kinds of information:

All Measures of Learner Achievement

However researcher describes:

Measure (A) _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Measure (B) _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Is achievement based on normative data? _____

If not, describe: _____

If investigator identified any language subskill, cite test(s) used and test results: _____

Mean _____ S.D. _____

Other _____

Personnel: Indicate all relevant to investigation.

Classroom teacher(s) in self-contained classroom _____

Team-teacher(s) _____

Specialist teacher (music, art, reading, social studies, other) _____

Para-professional(s) _____

Tutor(s) _____

Other _____

Specify which of above are described by the following features, if given:

Sex _____

Experience (years, types of teaching) _____

Race/Ethnicity _____

Degrees _____

Other _____

Approximate ages: less than 25 _____ 26-45 _____ 36-45 _____ 45+ _____

Are specific teaching behaviors identified with individual teachers? _____

Are specific teaching behaviors identified with groups of teachers? _____

Procedures

Write a sentence or sentences describing the actual teaching behaviors identified in the study, if they are sufficiently detailed. These sentences should include the following elements: (1) the specific teaching act, indicating whether affective, cognitive, or both; (2) the communication skill to be taught, as specifically indicated as possible; (3) the task of the learner; (4) the material being used, if any; and (5) reaction of the learner(s), if given. Six examples follow; the last two are negative ones.

1. Teacher pats a child on the back in approval of his oral answering of a question based on silent reading of a page from his basal reader; child smiles.
2. Teacher gestures approval to pupil who shows class a page of reading material he has found that is appropriate to an assigned topic.
3. Teacher writes on the chalk board a title volunteered orally by a pupil for a class-dictated story.
4. Teacher directs children to view a scrambled series of pictures and through informal discussion guides them in arranging them in a meaningful order.
5. Teacher assigns a child to write one hundred times, "I will study my spelling lesson," because he made many errors on a workbook page.
6. Teacher tells five pupils they may not go to the library for a story hour because they did not finish copying their compositions in the allotted time.

Write your descriptive sentence or sentences on the following page. [Blank page follows.]

Investigator's statement of results:

Aside from the adequacy of the research, are there any innovative or especially useful ideas contained in this study? (Implications for future research or ideas the investigator did not test.) Specify.

Important sources cited in the study or other bibliography that should be re-searched:

Any comments on usefulness or weaknesses not included in foregoing parts of this annotation. (Use other side if needed.)

Investigator's summary of study Include statement or hypothesis or hypotheses, significant information not already given in response to foregoing questions, results, major conclusions.

Personnel—Committees— Tasks, 1969-1973

The initial plans for a study of teacher effectiveness in elementary school language arts were made at a meeting in November 1969 called by H. Alan Robinson, then chairman of the Cooperative Research Committee. This appendix is, in fact, a report of the efforts of many persons continuing to shape and to carry out parts of the study first envisioned at that meeting.

Cooperative Research Committee Meeting (JFK Airport, Statler Hilton Inn, November 14, 1969)

Those present: Sidney Bergquist, Roger C. Farr, James T. Fleming, Albert J. Harris, Josephine P. Ives, Coleman Morrison, Walter T. Petty, Gus T. Plesman, H. Alan Robinson (Chairman).

At this first consideration of possibilities of a teaching effectiveness study, the committee emphasized a major objective—"to actively encourage the training of cooperative research workers"—and selected two problems on which cooperative research workers should focus: the problem of teacher effectiveness and the building of a collection of "samples of children's language throughout the country." A further plan of this group was that the NCRE Research Committee, interested research supervisors, and the researchers themselves would be asked to meet to generate guidelines for the development of these projects.

The above objectives were to be furthered at a regular meeting of the membership on March 5, 1970, at the Curtis Hotel, Minneapolis. Discussion at this general meeting focused on the two proposals growing out of the November 14, 1969, meeting, one having to do with a language bank and the other having to do with a study of teaching effectiveness. Two committees were to report to an NCRE meeting to be held in Anaheim, California, in conjunction with the International Reading Association (IRA) meeting there in April 1970.

In the interim, a group of interested persons met at New York University to plan further steps toward a broad study of teaching effectiveness.

Informal Meeting of Persons Concerned with a Study of Teaching Effectiveness (NYU, April 16, 1970)

Faculty present: Alvina T. Burrows, New York University; Albert J. Harris, City University of New York (Chairman); Coleman Morrison, Temple University; Barak Rosenshine, Temple University; J. Wesley Schueyer, University of Pennsylvania.

Graduate students present: Linda Friedberg, University of Pennsylvania; Richard Frizzi, Hofstra University; Richard McAdams, Jr., Temple University; Robert Rabinowitz, Temple University; Lillian Sacks, New York University.

The persons at this all-day session, all from the area of New York City, Philadelphia, New Jersey, and Long Island, included both faculty and doctoral students. This was in keeping with the principle enunciated at the first meeting leading in the direction of the overall study—namely, that cooperative planning

should embrace both graduate students and faculty members at various stages of expertise in language arts research.

After this meeting, H. Alan Robinson, Chairman of the Cooperative Research Committee, asked Alvina Burrows to chair a subcommittee to plan some tentative steps of organization and possible approaches for a further study of teaching effectiveness. Dolores Durkin, then President of the National Conference on Research in English, confirmed this appointment by letter, May 15, 1970. Invitations were sent to the membership asking for pertinent bibliography as well as notes on current studies in the area of teaching behaviors.

The next step in the direction of a major study of teaching effectiveness occurred at the Anaheim Meeting, May 6, 1970, at which time Albert Harris reviewed the overall plans and ideas growing out of the NYU meeting of April 16, 1970. It was suggested that a detailed proposal be written for a pilot study directed toward teaching behaviors and that efforts be made to obtain funding. Sidney Bergquist presented a research proposal for the development of a language data bank of samples of children's language.

Further direction to a long sequence of work was given at the subsequent working session of the Cooperative Research Committee at a meeting in New York in February 1971.

Cooperative Research Committee, Invited NCRE Members and Graduate Students (Americana Hotel, New York City, February 2, 1971)

Faculty present: Margaret Early, Syracuse University; Sara W. Lundsteen, University of California at Irvine; Coleman Morrison, Temple University; Walter T. Petty, State University of New York at Buffalo; H. Alan Robinson, Hofstra University; J. Wesley Schneyer, University of Pennsylvania; Helen K. Smith, University of Miami; Russell C. Stauffer, University of Delaware; Willavene Wolf, New York University.

Graduate students present: Lee Berck, Hofstra University; Richard Frizzi, Hofstra University; Linda Rice, Temple University; Lillian Sachs, New York University.

At this all day meeting, two groups were formed around two problems: how to select teachers for analysis of their classroom language arts teaching and how to design research into problems of assessing teaching behaviors. An outline of suggested steps grew out of the combination of reports of the work of the two groups. One of the immediate steps agreed upon was to conduct a literature search for reports of recent research on teaching behaviors in the language arts. Another was the circulation of a preliminary bibliography compiled from suggestions received in response to the invitation of April 1970.

The Selective Bibliography Form was developed by Alvina Burrows and H. Alan Robinson from a basic one originally devised by Martha Maxwell, University of California, Berkeley.

The Literature Search Committee, chaired by Sara W. Lundsteen, reported at a membership meeting in Minneapolis in conjunction with a National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) meeting, November 1972. This group presented a symposium at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) meeting in New Orleans, May 1972, and their written reports are included in this volume.

Students present: Maria F. Alvarez, John Lynch, David Green, John Wilson, Kenneth Goodman, Robert Seeger, Thomas Gray, Greg West, Stephen Hill, etc. For more, see *Journal of American Studies*, 24 (1990), 4, 641-6.

Members of WCWBL present at the April 1974 meeting received a written summary statement of their actions. A copy of this statement is included in the documents attached. These materials are being put into the files of the documents were referred to the aforementioned committee and they are being sent to the participants in the meeting. Enclosure is accompanying and there are also by these documents and a few documents which are not part of the original source for the information contained, approach a letter.

[illegible]